



OCTAVIA HILL.



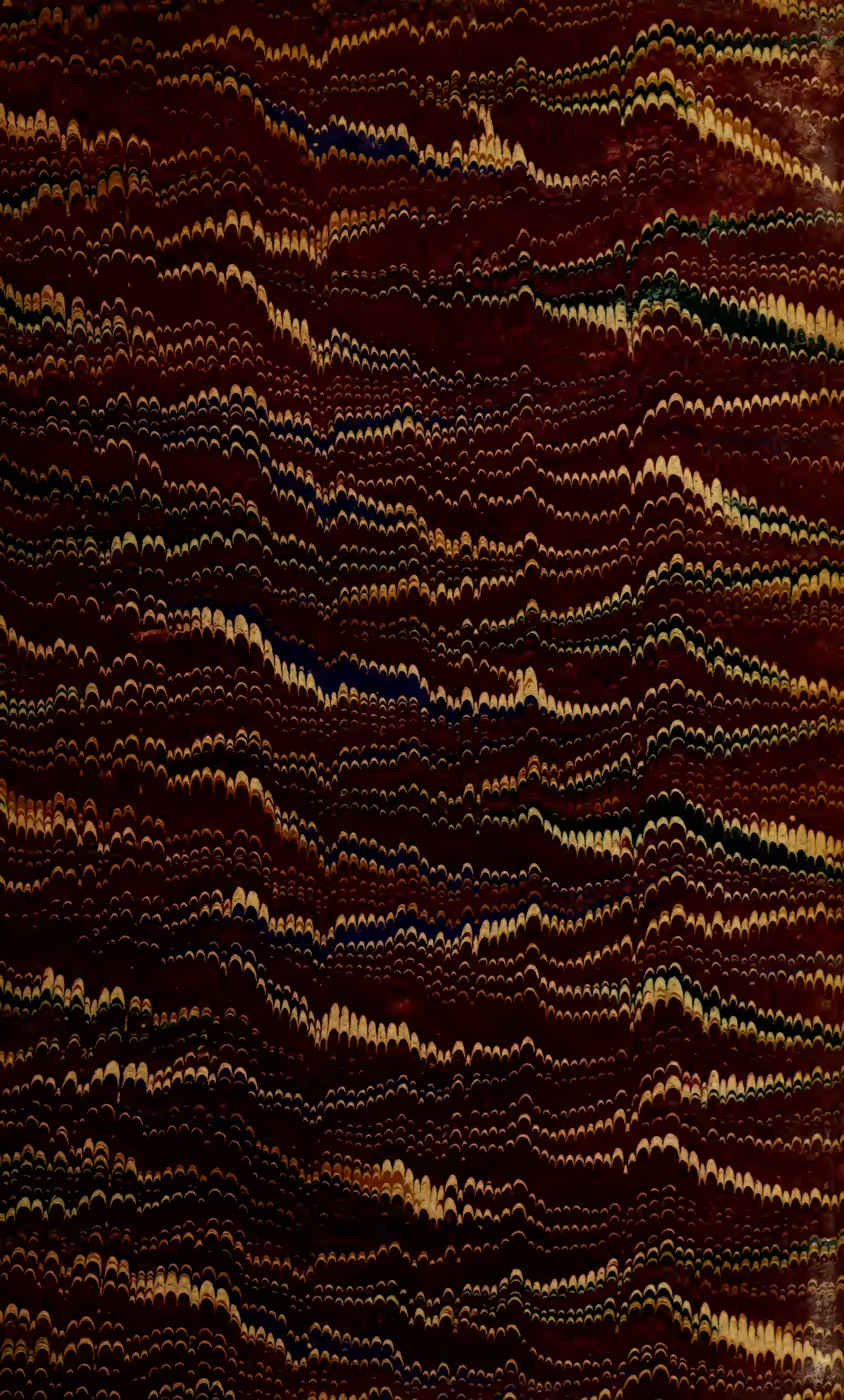
Presented to the Library

BY

Lady Shirley Murphy.

Date *26 Aug. 1929*

W. H. S. + 151
Class Mark. *SQC* Accession No. *10189*









Digitized by the Internet Archive
in 2015

<https://archive.org/details/b24400518>

ROYAL COMMISSION ON THE POOR LAWS AND RELIEF OF DISTRESS.

APPENDIX VOLUME XXXII.

REPORTS ON VISITS

PAID BY

The Labour Colonies Committee

TO

CERTAIN INSTITUTIONS

IN

HOLLAND, BELGIUM, GERMANY,
AND SWITZERLAND.

Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of His Majesty.



L O N D O N :

PRINTED FOR HIS MAJESTY'S STATIONERY OFFICE,
BY WYMAN AND SONS, LIMITED, 109, FETTER LANE, E.C.

And to be purchased, either directly or through any Bookseller, from
WYMAN AND SONS, LIMITED, 109, FETTER LANE, FLEET STREET, E.C.; and
32, ABINGDON STREET, WESTMINSTER, S.W.; or
OLIVER AND BOYD, TWEEDDALE COURT, EDINBURGH; or
E. PONSONBY, LIMITED, 116, GRAFTON STREET, DUBLIN.

1910.

TABLE OF CONTENTS.

	PAGE
Scope and Method of Inquiry - - - - -	1
HOLLAND.	
Amsterdam Poorhouse - - - - -	2
Free Labour Colonies - - - - -	3
Forced Labour Colonies - - - - -	6
BELGIUM.	
"The Colonies of Benevolence" :—	
"Beggars' Depot" at Merxplas - - - - -	12
House of Refuge at Wortel and Hoogstraeten - - - - -	17
Discharged Prisoners' Aid Society at Antwerp - - - - -	21
Belgian Prisoners' Aid Societies generally - - - - -	22
THE GERMAN EMPIRE.	
Hamburg :—	
The Poor Law System of Hamburg - - - - -	22
The "Helper" - - - - -	34
Charitable Information Bureau - - - - -	37
The Homeless Poor - - - - -	40
Expenditure - - - - -	40
The "Special Fund" - - - - -	42
The Poorhouse - - - - -	42
The Municipal Hospitals - - - - -	46
Children and Young Persons - - - - -	49
The Able-bodied - - - - -	52
Town Labour Colony - - - - -	54
Farm Colony at Schäferhof - - - - -	56
Strassburg :—	
Labour Exchange - - - - -	58
Apprenticeship - - - - -	63
Relief Works - - - - -	65
Insurance against Unemployment - - - - -	70
SWITZERLAND.	
Berne :—	
Municipal Labour Exchange - - - - -	71
Insurance against Unemployment - - - - -	72
Kühlewyl Poorhouse - - - - -	73
Forced Labour Farm at Witzwyl - - - - -	75
Nussdorf Labour Colony - - - - -	79
Labour Colony at Tannenhof - - - - -	80
Conclusions - - - - -	81
APPENDICES.	
APPENDIX A. :—	
Part I. Balance Sheet of the Association of Beneficence for 1906 - - - - -	90
Part II. Profit and Loss Account of the Association of Beneficence for 1906 - - - - -	91
APPENDIX B. :—	
Bills for the repression of Mendicancy and Vagrancy and of Drunkenness, drafted by the Dutch Vagrancy Commission, and of the explanations of such drafts, and the proposed incidental Amendments in the Dutch Criminal Code - - - - -	92
APPENDIX C. :—	
Balance Sheet of the Workshops at Merxplas for 1907 - - - - -	109
APPENDIX D. :	
Municipal Unemployment Insurance at Strassburg :—	
Part I. Regulations relating to the Scheme of Insurance against Unemployment established by the Municipality of Strassburg - - - - -	110
Part II. Report to the Strassburg Municipal Council on the Working of the Municipal Scheme of Insurance against Unemployment in 1907 - - - - -	110
A. The Introduction of the Insurance - - - - -	111
B. Results - - - - -	112

ROYAL COMMISSION ON THE POOR LAWS AND RELIEF OF DISTRESS.

REPORT ON VISITS PAID BY THE LABOUR COLONIES COMMITTEE OF THE ROYAL COMMISSION ON THE POOR LAWS AND THE RELIEF OF DISTRESS TO CERTAIN INSTITUTIONS IN HOLLAND, BELGIUM, GERMANY, AND SWITZERLAND.

The Royal Commission on the Poor Laws and Relief of Distress on April 14th, 1908, appointed a Committee of four of its members (Messrs. C. S. Loch, F. H. Bentham, T. Hancock Nunn, and G. Lansbury) to carry out the following reference:—

“ To make inquiry into methods of relief in certain European countries, and in regard to measures there adopted in dealing with unemployment.”

SCOPE AND METHOD OF INQUIRY.

The task imposed upon the Committee was to ascertain facts and to form opinions in relation to the administration of relief in certain directions in supplementation of the evidence collected by the Commission from witnesses and by circulars. In regard to two questions this supplementation was desired. One was the management of labour colonies, especially in relation to the results obtained by these colonies in reclaiming individuals who had been admitted to them. For this purpose certain typical colonies were selected and visited. The other was the administration of local relief considered as a whole and in its relations to the assistance of persons out of work. It was not enough, it was felt, to ascertain what particular methods were adopted, such as labour bureaux, labour colonies, and labour insurance. It was necessary also to ascertain how these were utilised in connection with the system of local relief and to show what were the distinctive characteristics of that system. Only in this way would the relative position of these special organisations to the whole be made clear and their actual utility be brought to light.

The colonies selected were the free labour colonies at Fredericksoord, the penal colonies at Veenhuizen in Holland; the colonies of benevolence in Belgium, which included the Beggars' Depot at Merxplas, and the “ Refuge ” colonies at Wortel and Hoogstraeten, and to which the admission is on conviction and by a magistrate's order; the town labour colony at Hamburg, and the farm colony at Schäferhof near Hamburg; the forced labour farm at Witzwyl with the supplementary labour colony at Nussdorf, and the labour colony at Tannenhof near Berne. At Hamburg the system of relief was studied as a whole and in relation to unemployment. Hamburg was selected both on the ground of the general opinion that its administration of relief was careful and effective and because, as the centre of large sea-borne trade, the authorities would probably have to meet with difficulties of want of employment among dock and general labourers similar to those which prevail in some English sea-ports.

As part of their subject, the Committee made inquiry also in regard to schemes of employment insurance, and on the other hand they visited institutions of the general type of workhouse and poorhouse at Amsterdam, Hamburg, and Berne.

The subjects are dealt with in this Report in the order of our visits, as the institutions were visited or the inquiries made by the Committee. Strassburg, as being in the German Empire, follows Hamburg—though, in fact, it was visited after Berne.

The Committee met at Amsterdam on August 9th, 1908, and finished its work (at Strassburg) on August 28th, 1908. From August 9th to August 21st (when he was compelled to return to England) Mr. Loch, and after Mr. Loch's return Mr. Bentham acted as Chairman of the Committee. The Secretary to the Committee throughout was Mr. D. F. Schloss, Consulting Expert to the Board of Trade, who acted as interpreter, except in Holland, where Heer Karel D. W. Boissevain, of Amsterdam, most kindly placed his services at the disposal of the Committee during their stay in that country.

HOLLAND.

AMSTERDAM POORHOUSE.

Origin, object's
and accommoda-
tion.

The first institution visited by the Committee was the Spinning and Workhouse (*Spin en Werkhuis*) at Amsterdam. This is a very ancient establishment, its first records relating to the year 1598. It is a Municipal establishment, which was originally a prison, in the nature of a "bridewell," but was reorganised in 1872 as a poorhouse, intended to deal with such cases as cannot adequately be dealt with by charity (to which all persons are referred, if such a course is practicable), and providing for the reception of any poor persons whose needy condition comes to the notice of the Municipal authorities. The total accommodation is for 820 inmates; their number at the date of the Committee's visit was 817.

Class of persons
admitted.

Any person in need may call at this workhouse. His case is then investigated by salaried officials, in order to ascertain whether it is suitable for admission. The classes of persons permanently accommodated here are persons over sixty years of age, and also sick people of any age (including epileptics) who receive infirmary treatment in this establishment; they are admitted only if poor and unable to work, with no relations upon whose support they can rely. But persons not included in these classes are taken in temporarily, in no case for longer than three months. No children are received at this poorhouse.

The question of the admission of each individual is decided, with the assistance of the evidence given by the paid investigators, by the committee of management.

There is no power of compulsory detention, the inmates being free to leave without notice.

Recovery of
relief from
relatives.

With respect to cases, in which relations, whose support the inmates have a legal right to claim, and who, though able to do so, refuse to give such support, it is, for the reasons which will be explained, only very seldom that legal proceedings are taken to enforce such obligations. In such proceedings the person aggrieved (*e.g.*, a parent, who is neglected by his son), makes the claim, at the instance of the Municipality. But according to the Dutch law a separate claim must be made in respect of each week during which the individual proceeded against has been in default. Consequently, the process is so cumbersome, that it is in practice rarely resorted to.

Occupations and
earnings of
inmates.

The institution possesses a steam laundry, and carries on, without the assistance of mechanical power, a certain number of industries, including the manufacture of mats (from cocoa-nut fibre), the weaving of cotton and linen cloths, the packing of blue, tobacco stripping, and the manufacture of firewood. There is also a carpenter's shop and a forge. All the inmates engaged in these industries receive wages. Thus, those engaged in weaving are paid piece-wages, enabling them to earn 4s. a week, while on mat-making the earnings average 10s. 6d. a week. The men in the carpenter's shop and the forge receive time wages of $\frac{1}{8}$ d. per hour.

The earnings of the inmates are paid to them once a month; but if an inmate quits the establishment, whatever he has earned since the last monthly pay day is handed to him on his departure.

The establishment has a staff of twelve paid officials; in addition, sixty of the more capable inmates (male and female) are employed at a wage of $1\frac{1}{2}$ d. per day.

Those inmates who are not able to do any work receive an allowance of 2d. per week.

The sexes are separated throughout this institution.

The medical attention required by the inmates is given by the medical staff of the Municipality.

With respect to certain general questions of Poor Law administration, the following information was given by the director of the poorhouse.

Indoor relief
more expensive
than outdoor
relief.

It is in the option of the Poor Law authorities to give in each case either indoor or outdoor relief. Although in principle it is only the deserving poor who receive relief in their own homes, yet weight appears to be attached to the fact that indoor relief is found to be more expensive than outdoor relief.

With respect to medical relief, the Medical staff of the Municipality gives free medical advice. As to hospital treatment, there are, in Amsterdam, two Municipal hospitals (with staffs paid by the Municipality), and also voluntary hospitals (including one Roman Catholic and three Protestant hospitals). Medical relief in Amsterdam.

In the Municipal hospitals all the persons treated, except those who are destitute, pay for their treatment on a scale varying with the assessed income of each. The destitute also receive at their own homes free medical advice and medicine, also such nursing care as may be requisite.

The principle of obliging those, who are in a position to pay for their treatment, to do so (in proportion to their means) obtains also in the voluntary hospitals of Amsterdam.

There are at Amsterdam a number of sick clubs, maintained by voluntary subscriptions.

Up to the present time no attempt has been made to secure any systematic co-operation between the Amsterdam Municipality and the charitable organisations of that city. As between the Poor Law and charity no sort of clearing-house exists. No co-operation between Poor Law and Charity.

FREE LABOUR COLONIES.

The Dutch Association of Beneficence founded in 1818 the Free Labour Colony of Frederiksoord, and subsequently established similar institutions at Willemsoord, Wilhelmina'soord, and Boxhoord. Of these, the Committee visited Frederiksoord, where the association has its headquarters, and Wilhelmina'soord. They also inspected the school of gardening at Frederiksoord, an institution established by private endowment, but enjoying a subsidy of £400 a year from the Dutch Government, and which has forty pupils, of whom ten to fourteen are sent there from the colonies, mostly being orphans boarded-out in the colonies, while the others are sons of colonists. Colonies visited.

The Committee, with the assistance of Heer Boissevain, conversed with several of the colonists, and had a lengthy interview with the director of the colonies.

The colonies are entirely maintained by voluntary subscriptions, no subsidy being provided by the Government, which, however, maintains all the schools on the estates of the association. Maintenance of colonies and schools.

The association embraces a number of local branches, each committee having the right to send a certain number of families to the colonies, in proportion to the subscriptions of the branch, one family for each £143 of subscriptions. Which branches shall in any given year be allowed to exercise this right is decided at the annual meeting of the Association. In some instances a branch, which has at the time no urgent cases, gives up its right to another committee. The general management of the colonies is in the hands of an executive committee, which meets once a month, sometimes at Frederiksoord, sometimes at Amsterdam, or in other towns. Admission to colonies.

With respect to the principle, on which the committees act in making their selection of persons to be admitted to the colonies, the director stated that the determining factor was the degree of poverty found to exist in each case, persons with large families being *ceteris paribus* preferred, but that the relative capability of the different applicants was not taken into consideration, and a certain tendency existed to send more or less incapable people to the colonies. Class of persons admitted.

The director said that the object of the colony was partly to afford support to people who did not find it possible to support themselves, but mainly to secure for the children of such people a thoroughly efficient training. Object of the colony.

With respect to the relative capability, as colonists, of men sent to the colonies from towns or from country districts, the director expressed his decided opinion that the men sent from towns included a larger proportion of inefficient men, and were much more difficult to train than men sent from country districts, a fact which makes it much more expensive to deal with the former than with the latter class. Relative capability of town and country men as colonists.

It is to be remarked, however, that the director, who has only been in the colonies for three years, explained, that this opinion was based upon what he had learnt with respect to the experience of the Association, prior to his coming to the colonies, and not upon actual facts occurring and observed by him during the time that he has been

director. Indeed, he mentioned an instance occurring within that period, in which an unskilled labourer sent to the colonies from a town worked well, and by his exertions supported himself and his family, adding, however, that this case formed an exception to the general rule. It should be added that the Committee, accompanied and assisted by the officials of the colonies, visited a considerable number of farms, with the object of discovering whether any of the persons, who had been promoted from the position of simple colonist to that of "free farmer" (see below), were men who had come to the colonies from towns, but were unable to find even one such case.

Free transport for colonists.

When it is determined that a family shall be admitted to the colonies, free transport, from their previous home to the colony to which they are sent, is provided for the people and their belongings.

Refusals to enter colonies.

But it is not always that people whom the Association would like to see admitted to the colonies, consent to be sent there. Thus, last winter (1907-8), the Amsterdam committee wanted to send a number of men to the colonies, but these men declined to go there. Nor do all of those, who are sent by the Association, actually arrive at the colony. Thus, in the course of the last three years, four different families (out of the total of fourteen or fifteen families sent here within that period) failed to reach their destination. These four families, on their arrival at Steenwijk, the railway station nearest to the colonies, declined to proceed further on their journey, on the ground, as the director stated, that life at the colonies appeared to these people to be unreasonably dull. It is not unworthy of remark that these four families all came from Amsterdam, while the other families (which duly arrived at and entered the colonies) were in every case inhabitants of country districts.

Discharge of "work-shy."

On the other hand, in certain cases men, who are found to be work-shy, are sent back from the colony when the authorities are convinced of their loafing propensities. This has, however, only occurred, so far as concerns the three years during which this director has been here, in two instances.

No record of inmates kept.

With regard neither to the past conduct of the people entering the colonies nor to their conduct after leaving the colonies, are any records kept.

Tenure and earnings of colonists.

With respect to the treatment of those who remain in the colonies, when he first comes, the head of the family is made a "colonist," being given a house, 1 acre of ground, a milch-ewe, manure, hay, etc., and a farming outfit. The value of the articles supplied to him is debited to his account with the Association, and he is also debited with 10d. or 11d. per week as rent for his house and land. No interest, however, is charged in respect of his indebtedness to the Association.

The colonist cultivates his own acre, and is entitled to its entire produce. In addition, he works as a labourer for the Association, which pays him wages. An able-bodied man gets 1s. 4d. a day, or in harvest time 1s. 8d. ; some work is given out as piece-work, and on this work the usual earnings are from 2s. to 2s. 6d. per day. In all cases, some part of the wages due to a man is retained and credited to his account, towards the repayment of his debt to the Association.

In some cases a colonist manages to earn enough money to purchase a cow.

Training.

With respect to the training which the newly arrived colonists receive, they are expected to get this by keeping their eyes open and watching the more experienced workers, and if in doubt, to ask the director for his advice, which is freely given. Nothing, however, in the nature of a systematic course of instruction is provided.

Promotion as "free farmers."

The colonist remains in his original *status* until, in the opinion of the colony authorities, he is fit, by the knowledge which he has acquired and the capacity and industry which he displays, to become a "free farmer," and is then promoted to that position. Some men never succeed in attaining this promotion. The total number of "colonists," who, in the three years during which the present director has been in office, have been raised to the rank of "free farmer," has been ten to twelve (an average of between three and four per year). The director stated that it is becoming easier for a colonist to become a free farmer than was the case in former times, a fact attributed to the lower price now obtaining for artificial manure, and to the more intensive nature of the cultivation now practised.

Lack of suitable colonists.

On the whole, however, the director informed the committee that the number of free farmers tends to decrease, which, in his opinion, is due to the small number of new families admitted to the colonies, and to the fact that many of those sent there from towns are ill

suited to achieve success in their new life in the country. Indeed, the Association finds it impossible to utilise for its proper purposes the whole of the land at its disposal, and lets off, at good rents, about 100 farms, for which it has no applications from colonists suitable to be made free farmers. Some of these farms are poor land; others have been improved into good land. If necessary, the Association could resume possession of these holdings, which are let on tenancies terminable at short notice; if this were done, they could admit, say, twenty-five additional colonists per year. Two farms belonging to the Association are vacant at the present moment.

At present, there are altogether in these colonies 100 colonists and 250 free farmers.

When a colonist becomes a free farmer, he is put in possession of a farm of about 6 or 7 acres, for which he is charged a rent of £10 a year, and receives a complete farming outfit, in addition to which he has his crops sown for him in his first year, and the Association then and afterwards assists him in buying manure. All this outlay is debited against the man, and he is allowed to pay it off by gradual payments. About two-thirds of the free farmers are now out of debt to the Association. The remainder (one-third of all) owe between them to the Association about £1,600; the director stated that these debts are being paid off more rapidly now than was formerly the case.

The free farmers have formed a co-operative dairy, and also a co-operative society for supplying themselves with fodder.

In addition to their work on their own account, the free farmers in winter also undertake work, which the Association finds for them. This work they do as piece-work in gangs, each composed of three or four men. The Association also employs on land reclamation, which is required for the purposes of these institutions, and which is carried out in winter, a number of outside labourers (unconnected with the colonies) at ordinary wages.

With regard to the competition of the colonies with neighbouring agriculturists, complaints on this head used formerly to be made; but none are heard at the present time.

Very little in the shape of industrial work is done in the colonies; and the director states, that he is not in favour of industrial training being given except in so far as work of this class may be necessary in direct connection with the management of the Association's estates.

The director, on being asked if any special means were adopted for submitting the colonists and free farmers to moral or religious influences, replied in the negative.

So far as concerns the young persons who leave the colonies, the Association, in some cases, sends them to employment, which it has found for them; but, as a rule, they find employment for themselves, without the assistance of the Association.

The accounts of the Association for 1906 show a (nominal) profit (excess of income over expenditure) of £1,157; but it should be observed that this balance is arrived at by reckoning as income sums received in respect of contributions by members and a large donation from a charitable fund amounting in the aggregate to £2,144. It should also be remarked that, as the Committee were informed, no re-valuation of the Society's estates has been made for ten years. The Balance Sheet and Profit and Loss Account of the Association are printed in Appendix F., *post*, pp. 90, 91.

The director stated that a tramway from the railway station at Steenwijk to the colonies (nine miles) is about to be built; the line will receive subventions from the Dutch Government and the Provincial Authorities, and its construction will be of marked advantage to the colonies, which would also view with great favour the construction of additional canals through the estates of the Association.

On being asked to state his views in relation to possible improvements in the organisation of the colonies, the director observed, that in his opinion this scheme was, from the point of view of reclaiming town people, by no means successful. The principal aim of the colonies in the future should be the education on the land of orphans and neglected or poor boys removed to the colonies from the cities.

FORCED LABOUR COLONY.

Class of persons
admitted to the
colonies.

The Dutch Government maintains three penal colonies, Veenhuizen (which, up till 1859 belonged to and was administered by the Association of Beneficence), Hoorn, and Leiden. The colony at Hoorn is used exclusively for the detention (for periods varying from three months to three years) of men, who have been repeatedly convicted of drunkenness, all such offenders being sent to this place where they are put to work of an industrial nature ; while Leiden is reserved for female prisoners.

Maintenance of
Veenhuizen.

Veenhuizen, a very extensive establishment, in which about 3,300 prisoners are detained, and at which both industrial work of many kinds and also agriculture are carried on, is used for the reception of persons convicted of begging or vagrancy. The entire cost of the maintenance of this prison falls on the central government (no part being borne by any local authorities).

This colony was inspected in all its details by the committee, who also obtained much information in the course of lengthy interviews with the director-in-chief, and his two principal subordinates.

Admission to
colony.

With respect to the manner in which admission to Veenhuizen takes place, although no one is allowed to become an inmate of the colony except in pursuance of judicial sentence, yet, as the committee were informed, the majority of the men at this place are here by their own desire. The usual procedure in such cases is for the man, who wishes to enjoy the shelter of this colony, to go to the police authorities and declare that he is destitute. The man is then lodged by the police free for one night. If he repeats this conduct on a certain number of days (say, three to six days), in succession, or with only very short intervals between his different applications, then the police arrest him as a vagrant, and he is brought before the magistrate, who, as a rule, but not invariably, asks the man how long he would like to stay at Veenhuizen, and in fixing the length of the sentence pays due regard to the wishes, on this subject, of the prisoner. In all cases the man is first sent to an ordinary gaol for three days, after which the sentence is, that he shall be detained at Veenhuizen for a period varying from three months to three years.

Support of
prisoners'
families.

When a man is sent to Veenhuizen, no inquiry, as the committee were informed, is made with respect to his wife and children, if any ; nor is any official of any kind charged with the duty of looking after them. The usual course is for the family of a Veenhuizen inmate to apply for assistance to charitable individuals or societies. The prisoners are under no compulsion to send any part of the money, which (as will be explained) they earn in this prison, to their families ; but this is done voluntarily by a certain number of the prisoners.

Recidivism of
inmates.

Very many of those, who go once to Veenhuizen, are sent there again on one or more subsequent occasions, up to twenty times in some cases. According to the Report, dated June 22nd, 1907, of the Dutch Royal Commission appointed to inquire into Mendicancy, Vagrancy, and similar questions, the 3,110* inmates of the Veenhuizen penal colony on December 31st, 1906, were distributed, from the point of view of recidivism, as follows :—

Undergoing a period of detention at Veenhuizen :—

For the first time	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	535
„ second time	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	590
„ third time	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	367
„ fourth time	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	311
„ fifth time	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	266
„ sixth to the tenth time	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	820
„ eleventh time to the fifteenth time	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	192
„ sixteenth to the twenty-second time	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	29

Total - - - - - 3,110

It will be remarked that the number of first offender prisoners constitutes only one-sixth of the whole, and that the number of those, who were at Veenhuizen for the sixth up to the twenty-second time, was no less than 1,041, or more than one-third of the entire number.

* This number (3,110) differs very slightly from that (3,114) furnished to the Committee by the Veenhuizen officials (see *post*, p. 8).

Statistics appended to the Report of the Dutch Vagrancy Commission show that out of the 1,151 prisoners who remained at Veenhuizen throughout the year 1906, 257 had not previously been incarcerated there : of this number 153 came from towns and 104 from the country.

It is, however, impossible for the prison authorities to be certain in all cases, whether a given man has or has not been in Veenhuizen on previous occasions, since the identity of the prisoners can not always be satisfactorily established. They had the Bertillon finger-print system in force here at one time ; but it was given up.

For the maintenance of discipline there are at Veenhuizen thirty-six policemen and twelve mounted guards (with revolvers and side arms), who are useful in patrolling the boundaries and the interior of the colony by day and by night.

In its Report the Dutch Vagrancy Commission already referred to animadverts upon the absence of any records showing the history and character of the prisoners ; such records might form the basis for classifying the prisoners with a view to their improvement. At present they are classed merely according to their capacity for work. No record of prisoners kept.

With regard to the conduct of the prisoners during their detention at Veenhuizen, no records (except records of punishments inflicted) are kept.

According to the Report of the Dutch Vagrancy Commission, 688 disciplinary punishments were inflicted during 1906 on inmates at Veenhuizen, the number of persons punished being 537. The offences for which punishments were inflicted were as follow :— Punishable offences of inmates.

Uncleanliness, carelessness, etc.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	7
Quarrelling, fighting, creating a disturbance, etc.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	33
Disobedience and impropriety of language	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	142
Obtaining or possessing forbidden articles	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	77
Idleness, refusal to work	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	20
Gambling	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3
Stealing or damaging articles entrusted to prisoners' use	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	88
Escaping, conspiring or attempting to escape	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	296
Attacking officials, etc.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	9
Assisting in the commission of offences	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Misbehaviour in cells	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	10
Wearing other than the regulation clothing	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
Total								688

With respect to the nature of the punishments inflicted in 1907 upon such of the 1,522 inmates of Division I. of Veenhuizen as incurred punishment in the course of 1907, the following figures were furnished to the Committee :— Nature of punishments inflicted.

Nature of disciplinary punishments - -	{	Withholding work or privileges accorded - - - - -										—		
		Punishment in cells -	{	Ordinary cell - - - - -										165*
				Punishment cell - - - - -										15
				Completely dark cell - - - - -										—
		Bread and water - - - - -										28		
		Placing in punishment cell with bread and water, or placing in irons, or both - - - - -										—		
		Corporal punishment (Art. 22, Law of Ap. 14, 1886, Staatsblad, No. 62) - - - - -										—		
		Transfer to Hoorn - - - - -										8		
Total number of punishments - - - - -										188				

However good the conduct of a prisoner may be, the period of detention fixed by his sentence is never reduced.

It appears from the Report of the Dutch Vagrancy Commission, that prisoners at Veenhuizen, who are under forty years of age and have been sentenced to detention for more than three months, receive elementary instruction from a certificated public school teacher, if they are found to be of defective education. Out of 1,151 prisoners interned at Veenhuizen throughout the year 1906, eighty-five were illiterate. Education of inmates.

* Of which total 28 were punished by confinement to an ordinary cell with bread and water, and are referred to in the number given below.

In Veenhuizen there is a library for the use of the prisoners, managed by the officials ; it contains books chosen by the Administration of the colony and by the Protestant and Roman Catholic clergy. Technical works dealing with agriculture, gardening, cattle-breeding, forestry, and various handicrafts are placed in the recreation halls (living rooms), together with publications of the " Volksbond," an association for combatting alcoholism ; religious literature is to be found in all the rooms and cells.

Recreation of inmates.

The recreation or living rooms in Veenhuizen hold sixty men ; prisoners are allowed to remain in these rooms up to 8.45 p.m. in summer, as well as on Sundays and festivals, and up to 7.45 p.m. in winter. They may read and smoke in these rooms, or play dominoes or draughts—the only games allowed by the Administration.

Religious instruction.

No officer exercising functions comparable with those of a lay brother is to be found at Veenhuizen ; nor did the prison officials, whom the Committee had the opportunity of meeting, appear to be familiar with the work of any officer of this kind. The Report of the Dutch Commission states that the clergy attached to the colony seldom visit the prisoners. Their number—two Protestants and two Roman Catholics—is small in proportion to that of the prisoners. Attendance at divine service is compulsory, and invalids only can obtain exemption for a limited period. The religious work amongst the prisoners is regarded by the Commission as entirely insufficient. During the last twelve months, however, the Committee were informed that the ministrations of the clergy among the prisoners had been more efficient, a young minister having recently taken over the charge.

Punishment of deserters.

Attempts to escape from Veenhuizen are very common. Many of these attempts succeed ; the police are then notified of the fact, and in nearly all cases the fugitives are caught and brought back to the prison * either soon or after a short interval during which they get drunk and are re-arrested. Escape renders a man liable to punishment, imposed by the private tribunal of the prison, which sits twice a week under the presidency of the director of Veenhuizen ; the decisions of this Court are subject to revision by the Minister of Justice. Out of twenty-three prisoners confined to cells at the time of the Committee's visit, twenty were undergoing punishment for having deserted. In the cells they are put to oakum-picking, etc.

Class of persons admitted to Veenhuizen.

Although the object of this penal colony is stated to be to put a stop to mendicancy the officials consulted were unable to express any opinion as to whether mendicancy had in fact been reduced.

It should be observed that, except in the case of a few men (about 1 per cent. of the whole), who have been sent here for begging, all the prisoners have been sentenced for vagrancy, and only a very inconsiderable number are beggars (though, as was pointed out, no doubt the vagrants would beg, if they were not sent to Veenhuizen). The great majority are lazy and addicted to an excessive consumption of alcohol. As a rule, a man, who merely begs, is not sent to Veenhuizen.

Of the convicted vagrants at Veenhuizen one-third are married, while according to the estimate of the officials (no statistics on this point being available) two-thirds are classes as " homeless." The Committee were informed that most of the vagrants come from Amsterdam and Rotterdam.

Ages of prisoners.

As between the " homeless " men at Veenhuizen and the others no difference as regards conduct in the prison is noticed ; but as between men of different ages, it is found that the older prisoners are easier to manage than the younger men. The majority of the prisoners are over fifty years of age, while about 25 per cent. of the whole are over sixty. The age distribution is shown in detail by the following figures with respect to the ages of the inmates of this prison on December 31st, 1906, which have been furnished to the Committee by the Veenhuizen officials.

PRISONERS DETAINED AT VEENHUIZEN ON DECEMBER 31ST, 1906.

Age.										Number.
21 and up to 25 years	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	48
26 " " 30 "	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	150
31 " " 35 "	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	218
36 " " 40 "	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	229
41 " " 45 "	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	349
46 " " 50 "	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	407
51 " " 55 "	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	507
56 " " 60 "	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	468
Over 60 years	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	738
Total										3,114

* In 1907 out of a total of 1,522 persons who were inmates of Division I. of Veenhuizen, 120 escaped and 106 were brought back after escape.

The prisoners receive three meals per day, viz. :—

I.—Half-an-hour after rising : 3 ozs. rye bread and $\frac{1}{2}$ litre coffee.

II.—At mid-day : Pease porridge, or potatoes and green groats, and green groats and sirup.

III.—Half-an-hour after entering from work : 3 ozs. rye bread and $\frac{1}{2}$ litre coffee.

The bread referred to is served dry ; but the prisoners are allowed, out of their earnings (see *post*), to add butter and bacon purchased by themselves.

The Report of the Dutch Commission states that the dormitories at Veenhuizen are calculated to hold 120 men. In the new blocks the dormitories are well ventilated and have closed alcoves ; in the old block (III.) the prisoners sleep in hammocks. There are no night rounds. The bedding, besides a straw mattress and pillow, consists of two sheets with a woollen blanket in summer, and two woollen and one cotton blanket in winter.

The authorities at Veenhuizen have no power to inflict hard labour ; they said that they wished they had.

A statistical table appended to the Report of the Dutch Vagrancy Commission give the average number of prisoners working at Veenhuizen in 1906 as 2,925, the average number sick and not working being 117. Of those working, 230 were engaged in forestry, 1,223 in agriculture, 690 in various kinds of household work for the institution (including carpenters, butchers, warders, labourers, potato-peelers, cooks, etc.), and 782 in factory work.

The colony owns 7,000 acres of land, which is divided into 20 farms, each with 40 cows and 10 horses. The industries carried on include tailoring, weaving, shoemaking, bookbinding, furniture manufacture, blacksmith's work, and also (on a small scale) basket-making.

The Commission considers that the number of prisoners engaged in agricultural work and on the farms, although not so large as previously, is still too great in proportion to the work to be done, and there is consequently a good deal of idleness. In bad weather and in the winter there is little to do, and the greater part of the labourers are unemployed for long periods. They are unable to do any other work and there are no arrangements for teaching them other branches of industry ; the day is consequently spent in chatting, loafing and resting, with the result that they lose the small amount of energy they possess and become totally unfitted for ordinary life.

The whole of the agricultural products are used in the prison (and they have to buy more) ; the products of the workshops not required for the use of the prison are all sold to different Departments of the Dutch Government. Some 250 men are employed in building work.

In respect of the labour which they perform certain small gratuities are paid to the prisoners. In many cases these gratuities are in the form of piece-wage. In those cases in which this remuneration takes the form of time wages the scale, on which these payments are made in the different occupations, is as follows :—

DAY WAGES.

Carpenters :—						Men engaged in breaking stones and builders' refuse :—							
1st Class	{	In Summer	-	-	-	3·0	1st Class	{	In Summer	-	-	-	1·4
		In Winter	-	-	-	2·5			In Winter	-	-	-	1·0
2nd Class	{	In Summer	-	-	-	2·5	2nd Class	{	In Summer	-	-	-	1·2
		In Winter	-	-	-	2·0			In Winter	-	-	-	d. - 0·8
3rd Class	{	In Summer	-	-	-	2·0	Apprentices to handicrafts from - 0·3 to 0·9						
		In Winter	-	-	-	1·5	Men engaged in conveying peat - - - 2·4						
4th Class	{	In Summer	-	-	-	1·5	Men engaged in stacking peat - - - 2·4						
		In Winter	-	-	-	1·0	Men engaged in wheeling at the peat stack - 2·4						
Masons, Builders, Painters, Plumbers, Paper-hangers, Thatchers :—						General Labourers (at Veenhuizen) :—							
1st Class	{	In Summer	-	-	-	2·7	1st Class	-	-	-	-	1·5	
		In Winter	-	-	-	2·1	2nd Class	-	-	-	-	1·2	
2nd Class	{	In Summer	-	-	-	2·4	3rd Class	-	-	-	-	0·9	
		In Winter	-	-	-	1·8	Men engaged in preparing manure - - - 2·4						
3rd Class	{	In Summer	-	-	-	2·1	Men engaged in pumping at the engine - - 2·0						
		In Winter	-	-	-	1·5	Men engaged in repairing baskets - - - 1·6						
Masons' Labourers :—						Masons (hewers) :—							
1st Class	{	In Summer	-	-	-	2·1	1st Class	{	In Summer	-	-	-	3·0
		In Winter	-	-	-	1·8			In Winter	-	-	-	2·5
2nd Class	{	In Summer	-	-	-	1·8	2nd Class	{	In Summer	-	-	-	2·5
		In Winter	-	-	-	1·5			In Winter	-	-	-	2·0
3rd Class	{	In Summer	-	-	-	1·5	3rd Class	{	In Summer	-	-	-	2·0
		In Winter	-	-	-	1·5			In Winter	-	-	-	1·5

WEEKLY WAGES.

	s.	d.		s.	d.
Carpenters' and Carriage-builders' foreman	1	6	Washerwomen	1	0.6
Clerk	1	8	Miller's Assistant	1	2.4
Dressers (male or female) in hospitals	1	0	Bakers' Assistants :—		
Dispensers' Assistants :—			1st Class	1	0.6
1st Class	1	0	2nd Class	10	8
2nd Class	9	6	Peat store-keeper	1	0.6
Kitchen Assistants :—			Men in charge of lamps :—		
1st Class	1	6	In Summer	8	4
2nd Class	1	3	In Winter	1	0
Overseers of rooms, also cleaners	1	1.2	Barber		9
Hospital Nurses (male or female)	1	0.6	Assistant in stores department	1	0
Matron (for children)	10	5	Assistant in the shop	10	8
Children's Nurse	10	5			

INDUSTRIAL BRANCHES.

DAY WAGES.

	d.		d.
Smiths, working at the bench :—		Shipwrights :—	
1st Class { In Summer	2.7	1st Class { In Summer	2.7
{ In Winter	2.1	{ In Winter	2.1
2nd Class { In Summer	2.4	2nd Class { In Summer	2.4
{ In Winter	1.8	{ In Winter	1.8
3rd Class { In Summer	2.0	3rd Class { In Summer	2.1
{ In Winter	1.5	{ In Winter	1.5
Smiths, working at the forge :—		Persons sawing wood for clogs :—	
1st Class { In Summer	3.0	1st Class { In Summer	2.4
{ In Winter	2.4	{ In Winter	1.8
2nd Class { In Summer	2.7	Brushmakers :—	
{ In Winter	2.1	1st Class { In Summer	2.7
3rd Class { In Summer	2.4	{ In Winter	2.1
{ In Winter	1.8	2nd Class { In Summer	2.4
Carriage Builders :—		{ In Winter	1.8
1st Class { In Summer	3.0	3rd Class { In Summer	2.0
{ In Winter	2.5	{ In Winter	1.5
2nd Class { In Summer	2.5	Boot Repairers :—	
{ In Winter	2.0	1st Class { In Summer	2.4
3rd Class { In Summer	2.0	{ In Winter	1.8
{ In Winter	1.5	Persons engaged in Repairing Clothes :—	
4th Class { In Summer	1.5	1st Class	2.0
{ In Winter	1.0	2nd Class	1.6
Coopers :—		Persons engaged in Repairing Clothes of Officials :—	
1st Class { In Summer	2.7	1st Class	3.0
{ In Winter	2.1	2nd Class	2.8
2nd Class { In Summer	2.4	3rd Class	2.6
{ In Winter	1.8	Persons engaged in Repairing Seamstresses' Work :—	
Saddlers :—		1st Class	1.5
1st Class { In Summer	2.7	2nd Class	1.2
{ In Winter	2.1	Persons engaged in Discharging and Loading Jute	
2nd Class { In Summer	2.4	Yarn, Coffee Bags, and Wood for Clogs :—	
{ In Winter	1.8	1st Class	2.4
Tinsmiths :—		2nd Class	1.8
1st Class { In Summer	2.7	Apprentices :—	
{ In Winter	2.1	1st Class { In Summer (maximum)	1.5
2nd Class { In Summer	2.4	{ In Winter (maximum)	1.0
{ In Winter	1.8	Persons engaged in Examining and Pressing Sacks :—	
Bookbinders :—		1st Class	2.0
1st Class { In Summer	2.4	Persons engaged in Turning Wheels in rope works :—	
{ In Winter	1.8	1st Class	1.5
2nd Class { In Summer	2.1	2nd Class	1.2
{ In Winter	1.5	Persons engaged in Cleaning the Factory :—	
Persons making straw bottoms for chairs :—		1st Class	1.5
1st Class { In Summer	2.4	Persons engaged in Miscellaneous Work :—	
{ In Winter	1.8	1st Class	1.5
2nd Class { In Summer	2.1		
{ In Winter	1.5		

Hours of labour.

Overtime is paid for at 10 per cent. extra, and (as will be seen) the gratuities are at a higher rate in summer than in winter, the working hours being longer in the summer than in the winter months (varying from six and three-quarter hours per day in mid-winter to ten and three-quarters at mid-summer). With respect to the hours of work at this

establishment, the Dutch Vagrancy Commission states that at Veenhuizen eleven hours are allotted to sleep, five and a half to recreation and meals, and that the hours of labour for prisoners engaged in industrial or factory work are only seven and a-half; the shortness of the hours of labour, which the Commission consider contributes to indolence, arises from the lack of artificial light in the workshops.

The work carried on at Veenhuizen is performed under the supervision of a general manager, who has under him three under-managers and three assistants (one under-manager and one assistant for each of the three groups of industries into which the work is divided); and each workshop in every group has its own technical foreman (*e.g.*, one such foreman for 200 weavers). In addition, there are about 200 workmen who are not prisoners, and who receive ordinary wages and act as gangers. Supervision of labour.

It is worthy of remark, that a very large proportion of the prisoners at Veenhuizen (according to statistics published in the Report of the Dutch Vagrancy Commission, no less than 771 out of 3,110 prisoners at Veenhuizen on December 31st, 1906) are persons who, owing to physical or mental defects, or old age, can not be regarded as capable of maintaining themselves by their labour, and whom it would be impossible to train to do so. Numbers unable to work.

One-third of all that is earned by a prisoner may be used by him in buying extra food, etc., at the prison, the other two-thirds he receives only at the expiration of his sentence, when, out of what is standing to the man's credit, his railway ticket, from the nearest station (Assen) to the place to which he is going, is brought for him, and he receives a certain sum in cash, but the rest is sent in instalments to the mayor of that place, by whom the money, as and when received by him, is handed to the ex-prisoner. If, however, the man's destination is outside Holland, then he receives on leaving the prison, all that is due to him. In many cases, in order to obtain their money at once, men, who have every intention of remaining in Holland, declare that they are going abroad, *e.g.*, to Germany. Payment of earnings deferred.

No certificate of conduct while in prison is given to those who leave Veenhuizen, and, perhaps, no such testimony would be of much service to the ex-prisoner; for if it is known that a man has been here, he is regarded with much suspicion, and finds it hard to obtain employment. It is an offence against the Dutch law to give a false name. The ex-prisoners find that the further away from Veenhuizen they go, the less difficult is it to obtain employment; many, for this reason, seek work in German mines. In some instances the Veenhuizen officials endeavour to obtain employment for men on their discharge but in no case does this form any part of the recognised duty of any official whatever. There is one very small shelter at Apeldoorn, maintained by the Discharged Prisoners' Aid Society at Amsterdam, which receives only those who leave Veenhuizen after a first term of imprisonment there; but only a few men go to this place. There is also a small shelter of the same kind at Hoveland. Employment of ex-prisoners.

Asked to express their views on the modifications, which, in their opinion, it might be desirable to introduce in relation to the existing organisation of Veenhuizen, the officials suggested, that it would be better if the prison (which at present consists of three distinct but identical establishments, each housing about 1,000 prisoners) were re-modelled in blocks, each to contain fifty prisoners. If this were done, then they could classify and separate the different classes, which exist among the prisoners. At present, they are obliged to allow all social classes—army officers, privates (they have many inmates who have served in the colonial forces of Holland), doctors, lawyers, workmen, etc.—to be together. Were it possible to adopt such a "block" system, then it was considered that, so far as concerns the younger men (men between twenty-five and thirty, according to the director; between twenty-five and thirty-five, according to his immediate subordinate), the prisoners might be more likely to prove self-supporting after leaving the prison, and less liable to find themselves again sentenced to confinement within its walls; this result, however, the director preferred to treat not as "certain" (as his subordinate was prepared to maintain), but as "possible" to ensue. Improvements desirable in existing organisation.

Another improvement suggested by the principal officials was, that the present practice of sending aged men to Veenhuizen should be abandoned—old men being instead sent to a home for the aged, where they should be given light tasks suited to their capacity. According to the Dutch law Veenhuizen is intended for the reception of *able-bodied* persons; but as a fact, the magistrates send thither men who no longer possess the power to work.

In the opinion of these officials the men sent to Veenhuizen should primarily, if not exclusively, be such men as are fit to work, and who could be regenerated by work ; these would be men not over thirty-five years of age. If men over thirty-five are sent here, the officials can indeed make use of their labour, but without any possibility of any profit being realised on their work ; and such men they would not expect to succeed in regenerating. In any event, men of the former class, whose moral and social improvement is not past hoping for, should be entirely separated from men of the irreclaimable type. Care should be taken that the work given to the former class should be of an *instructive* nature.

No moral or social improvement effected.

The director and his immediate subordinate were asked whether, as a matter of past experience, greater success in reclamation had been achieved in regard to the younger than to the older men. Their reply (in which both agreed) was that neither in the case of the younger nor in that of the older prisoners at Veenhuizen had any moral and social improvement been effected ; this was clearly shown by the constant recidivism.

In Appendix B., *post*, pp. 92-108, will be found a translation of two Bills for the repression of mendicancy and vagrancy, and of drunkenness respectively, which were drafted by the Dutch Vagrancy Commission and are printed in its Report, and of the explanations there given of the provisions of these Bills and of the amendments in the Dutch Criminal Code proposed by the Commission.

BELGIUM.

“ THE COLONIES OF BENEVOLENCE.”

Object of institutions.

In addition to its ordinary penal establishments, the Belgian Government maintains a number of labour colonies to which is given the name of “ State Colonies of Benevolence,” and whose special aim is “ the repression of vagrancy and mendicity.” These institutions, which are under the control of the Ministry of Justice, are of two kinds : (a) the “ Beggars’ Depot ” ; and (b) the “ House of Refuge.” The inmates of either kind of colony are sent thither in all cases by judicial order, under the law of November 27th, 1901, for the repression of vagrancy and mendicity ; the worst offenders being sent to a beggars’ depot, while men of a less blameworthy type are sent to a house of refuge, in which also persons whose seclusion takes place at their own desire (with the concurrence of the communal authorities of their place of settlement) are received.

So far as men are concerned (women being received in an establishment at Bruges), the institutions, in which seclusion of the nature just explained is carried out, are the beggars’ depot at Merxplas,* and the house of refuge at Wortel,* to which is attached an establishment at Hoogstraeten* immediately adjoining Wortel. All these institutions were visited by the Committee, the leading officials of the colonies being on this occasion freely interrogated, and giving, with great courtesy, the fullest details with respect to the working of these establishments. The Committee were accompanied on the occasion of their visit by M. Henry Dom, Director in the Ministry of Justice, and have to thank that gentleman for much useful information on many points of interest.

BEGGARS’ DEPOT AT MERXPPLAS.

Class of persons admitted.

The institution at Merxplas is, as the Committee were informed, intended for the reception, in the first place, of such able-bodied men as, instead of working for their living, exploit charity as professional beggars, or as, through laziness, drunken habits, or immoral conduct, live in a state of vagrancy, and of those who live on the earnings of prostitutes (the duration of the internment of persons of the classes just specified being not less than

* It may be proper to note as a matter of historical interest, that while Hoogstraeten was, at the time when Belgium became an independent State, a beggars’ depot for the Province of Antwerp, both Merxplas and Wortel owe their original foundation to the same charitable society (the Dutch Association of Beneficence), by which the Dutch labour colonies described above (*ante*, pp. 3 *et seq*) were established, Wortel having been acquired by the Dutch Society in 1822, and Merxplas in 1823. In the case of these Dutch Association-Colonies, the conceptions entertained by General Van der Bosch, the founder of the Association of Beneficence, appear to have been largely influenced by the ideas of Fourier. The work of the Association at Merxplas and Wortel ceased in 1841 ; and in 1870 these two establishments were acquired by the Belgian Government.

two or more than seven years), and in the second place of beggars and vagrants who have been condemned by the correctional tribunals to a term of imprisonment of less than one year by reason of their having committed an offence against the criminal law, and whom the law requires at the expiration of this term to be "retained at the disposition of the Government" * for a term of not less than one or more than seven years. (The number of beggars and vagrants sent to Merxplas under the circumstances just referred to is very small, twenty-nine only out of the 5,015 inmates of this establishment on December 31st, 1907, coming within this category.)

In deciding whether to send a man to Merxplas or to the less severe institution at Wortel, the magistrate can be assisted by information given by the colony authorities or by the Ministry of Justice, obtaining, when requisite, information as to the antecedents of any vagrant, etc., brought before him by telegraphing to that Office. The colonies possess the police records of every man, and as to vagrants, copies of all such records are filed at the Ministry. There is no system of fingerprint (Berthillon) identification in force at present; the authorities (as the Committee were informed) are engaged in selecting for adopting a system of this nature, and will probably choose a fingerprint method.

The term of "seclusion," for which the inmates of Merxplas have been sent there is in most cases from two to four years, in exceptional cases as much as seven years. The usual period of "seclusion" is fifteen months. If it appears to the authorities of the colony that it would be proper to release an inmate before the expiration of the period for which he was sent to Merxplas, they notify the matter to the Ministry of Justice, which then lays the matter before the Judge by whom the man was sent to Merxplas, before the committee of visitors of the colonies, and before the police authorities, all of whom give their advice on the subject. In some cases the recommendation of the Merxplas authorities that an inmate shall be discharged is not acceded to; but the number of inmates who in this manner receive their discharge before the expiration of the term for which they had been originally sentenced is very considerable (1,493 in 1907).

The following classification of the inmates obtains at Merxplas :—

Classification of inmates.

Class I.—Persons from eighteen to twenty-one years of age not requiring special treatment.

Class II.—Persons who, although not fully able-bodied, are capable of performing a certain amount of work.

Class III.—Persons incapacitated from the performance of work of any kind.

Class IV.—Persons who have never previously been sent to a beggars' depot and whose judicial antecedents are not of a seriously unsatisfactory character.

Class V.—Men who have escaped from Merxplas and have been brought back again.

Class VI.—Persons convicted of arson or of destroying trees, or who have, before or during their stay in the colonies of benevolence, uttered threats of arson.

Class VII.—Persons living on the results of prostitution, and those who have been sentenced on one or more occasions for serious offences against morality, or whose immorality is notorious.

Class VIII.—Inmates of a dangerous character or not amenable to discipline or who, having been condemned to a term of imprisonment which has not yet expired, have been transferred to Merxplas by judicial order.

Class IX.—All inmates not comprised in any of the preceding classes.

* The "colonists" are never spoken of as "prisoners." The Governor of Merxplas denied that they were even "persons detained" (*detenus*) though the official language of the Ministry of Justice uses this word. As a rule, the inmates of the colonies are termed "*reclus*."

Each class
kept separate.

As between the men comprised in each of the nine classes just mentioned, an absolute physical separation is maintained throughout the establishment, men of one class never being allowed to mix with men of any other class. (Thus, immoral men are set to work in special workshops to which no others are admitted.) The object of this separation (as was explained to the Committee), is to promote the moral and social improvements of the inmates (this being always aimed at in all the arrangements of the institution), but the reason for preventing the different classes from mixing together is primarily the enforcement of proper discipline.

Maximum and
minimum number
of inmates.

Most of the inmates were stated to be " regular gaol birds " ; but a very large number would not be at Merxplas, if it were not that they are suffering from disease, such as phthisis, heart disease, syphilis, East Indian fever (caught while serving in the Dutch colonial army, or at Madagascar). To a certain extent, so far as temporary variations in numbers are concerned, the existence of industrial depression is a factor not without importance ; for when trade is depressed, workmen of indifferent character find it difficult to obtain employment. Thus, whenever there is a time of bad trade or a strike in any industry, the number of men in that trade coming to Merxplas is large. So again, a considerable number of the inmates are hand-loom weavers ; hand-loom weaving is still extensively carried on in the country districts of Belgium, but this form of industry is not remunerative and is dying out. So far as concerns seasonal depression, it appears certain that winter slackness exercises a material influence ; for the number of inmates is always much higher in winter than in summer ; thus, in 1907, the greatest number of inmates on any one day was 5,204 on February 22nd (in 1906, 5,484 on February 23rd) ; while the lowest number in 1907 was 4,366 on August 19th (in 1906, 4,580 on August 16th).

Causes for which
men become
inmates.

On the whole, the officials consulted were of opinion that the causes, which account for men being sent to Merxplas, are mainly :—

- (a) Physical deficiency ;
- (b) Intellectual or moral deficiency ; and
- (c) Habitual delinquency.

But drunken habits constitute a factor in practically every case sent here.

Inmates mostly
townsmen and
unskilled
workmen.

As between townsmen and countrymen, it is, in the great majority of cases, men from the big cities (*e.g.*, Brussels, Antwerp, and Ghent) who are sent here. As between the skilled and the unskilled, it is, for the most part, the unspecialised labourers who get sent to Merxplas, seldom the skilled workmen. Thus out of the 3,010 men sent to Merxplas in 1907 (otherwise than by transfer from other prisons) the only occupations that figure with over 100 representatives are those of boot and shoe-makers (110), navvies and well-sinkers (111), smiths, tool-makers, etc. (114), stone-cutters (180), agricultural labourers (293), and day labourers, etc. (456).

The number of inmates tends to increase at Merxplas, but to decrease at Wortel ; the reasons assigned are that to Wortel (as a general rule), only first, second, third offenders are sent, those who have been convicted more often than three times being usually sent to Merxplas ; that the period of detention is longer at Merxplas than at Wortel ; and that of late years, men are often more discharged from Wortel before the expiration of the period of seclusion fixed when they were sent there. [Formerly inmates had the right to be discharged from Wortel when they had (out of the accumulations of their earnings there) 12s. to their credit ; more recently this sum was fixed at 20s. Under the old *regime* it was found that men leaving Wortel with only 12s. soon became so needy as to relapse into vagrancy ; and the then director of Wortel became reluctant to discharge them ; now, since the 20s., which they have when they are discharged, is a more substantial amount, they can be discharged without so much fear of relapse, and they are more freely allowed to leave Wortel than was formerly the case.]

The total number of different men in Merxplas in 1907 may be taken as 9,000 (for *maximum* and *minimum* numbers, see above).

Ages and number
of inmates.

Out of the total number of 5,015 inmates of Merxplas on December 31st, 1907, 3,430 were (according to the information supplied to the Committee by the officials of that

establishment) classed as able-bodied ; 1,585 (nearly one-third) as not able-bodied. The age distribution of these 5,015 men is shown below, the number and age of first offenders in 1907 being also given :—

Age.	Number of inmates on December 31, 1907, who were within the age- limits shown in col. 1.	Number of inmates at any time in 1907, who had been sentenced for the first time.
(1)	(2)	(3)
18 years and up to 20 years - - - -	20	27
21 " " 24 " - - - -	289	45
25 " " 29 " - - - -	316	52
30 " " 34 " - - - -	400	48
35 " " 39 " - - - -	572	29
40 " " 44 " - - - -	759	28
45 " " 49 " - - - -	835	26
50 " " 54 " - - - -	786	13
55 " " 59 " - - - -	684	14
60 " " 69 " - - - -	187	11
70 years and over - - - -	167	4
Total - - - -	5,015	297

It will be seen that considerably more than two-thirds of the inmates were between the ages of thirty-five and sixty, while 187 were sixty and under sixty-nine years of age, and no less than 167 were seventy years of age and upwards.

The number of first offenders during 1907 will be seen to be 297 only ; taking the 5,015 persons who were inmates of Merxplas on December 31st, 1907, the number of first offenders was 286, while that of those who were serving a second term was 405, a third term, 471, a fourth term, 119, and that of those who had already been sentenced on four or more previous occasions was no less than 3,734.

With regard to the occupations of the persons sent to Merxplas, information is given as to the 3,010 men sent directly (and not by transfer from some other establishment) to that colony in 1907. Among these, the classes showing the largest numbers are day labourers (" including ninety-two factory workmen "), 456 ; agricultural labourers, 293 ; bricklayers, 180 ; smiths, fitters, etc., 114 ; navvies and well-sinkers, 111 ; boot and shoemakers, 110 ; and coachmen and waggoners, 100.

The meals provided for the inmates (other than non-able-bodied men requiring special dietary) are as follows :—Breakfast, rye-bread, with chicory and milk ; dinner, soup made with meat, rice, peas and vegetables, or with lard, rice, peas and vegetables ; supper, soup made with haricot beans, lard, vegetables and vinegar, or with potatoes, vegetables, bacon, onion and vinegar ; all kinds of soup are flavoured with salt and pepper.

The work done by the inmates of Merxplas is in part agricultural, in part industrial. On a man's arrival at the colony, the officials (who have already received from the Ministry of Justice information as to the occupational class to which the man belongs) test him at his trade (if he have one) ; if he turns out to be incompetent as an artisan, or if he knows no trade, or none of the kinds carried on at Merxplas, he is sent to join the gangs of labourers who work on the colony farms, which cover 680 acres.

As to the industrial work carried on at Merxplas, this is of many kinds, and on an extensive scale. Brick and tile-making, pottery manufacture, gas-making, oakum-picking, the manufacture of pearl buttons, the manufacture of chicory and tobacco, the production of cement drain pipes, paving squares, etc., corn-milling, baking, a slaughter-house, building work, carpenters' and joiners' shops, coopering, marble and stone carving, saw-mills, cabinet work and furniture making, mattress-making, van building, tanning, wooden and

leather shoemaking, tailoring, hat-making, wood and iron turning, blacksmith's work, stove making, locksmith's work, iron moulding, horse-shoeing, plumbing, zinc-working, gas-fitting, portmanteau-making, rope-making, brush-making, basket-making, spinning and weaving, saddlery, upholstery, painting, bookbinding, engraving, printing and lithography—all these forms of industry are carried on at Merxplas.

Earnings.

In some cases the labour of the inmates is let to contractors, in the others it is performed for the administration of the colony, the products of this labour being either consumed in the colony or disposed of to different Departments of the Belgian Government. In all cases the men receive wages "proportional to their production," either piece-wages or time-wages. Of these wages, one-half is paid over to the men, who are allowed to spend it in purchasing food, tobacco, clothing, etc., at the colony stores, the other half is retained and given to the man on his discharge.

Rates of wages.

The rates of time-wages, subject, in certain special cases, to increase by way of extra wage up to 50 per cent. of the ordinary rate, but not to exceed 3s. 2.4d. per month, are as under :—

	Per day.
A.—On building works, or in workshops generally - - -	1.44d. to 2.40d.
B.—On agricultural work - - - - -	1.15d. „ 2.02d.
C.—For domestic service, etc. - - - - -	1.15d. „ 1.73d.
D.—For special services (clerks, etc.) - - - - -	1.82d. „ 2.88d.
E.—For inmates confined to cells - - - - -	0.96d. „ 1.44d.

Those inmates, who are not capable of working, are given a small sum by way of "canteen money" (0.29d. per day).

Hours of labour.

The inmates' hours of labour are in winter $8\frac{3}{4}$ a day in the workshops, $9\frac{3}{4}$ for the agricultural gangs; in summer $10\frac{1}{4}$ for all.

Profit on labour.

Taking together all the different branches of industrial work carried on at Merxplas, it is stated that the total value of the production of the workshops in 1907 was £38,412, and that the net profit on this production (*i.e.*, on so much of it as was not used for the purposes of the institution itself) was £3,997. The rate of profit, however, varies from year to year, according as a greater or smaller proportion of the total output of each year is consumed by the establishment itself. Thus, the profit of 1907 was at the rate of 10.40 per cent. on the value of the year's output, as against 6.48 per cent. in 1906; 8.75 per cent. in 1905; 12.19 per cent. in 1904; and 7.13 per cent. in 1903. (The balance-sheet of the Merxplas workshops for 1907 is printed in Appendix C., *post.*, p. 109.)

Notwithstanding the close supervision exercised by the staff of between eighty and ninety warders, who are assisted by a detachment of infantry, 150 in number, under the command of a captain and two lieutenants, escapes from Merxplas are frequent. Thus, in 1907, 919 inmates escaped. But the fugitives are in most cases re-captured and brought back to Merxplas; this happened in 1907 to no less than 807 men.

Religious instruction.

The spiritual care of the inmates of Merxplas is entrusted to two resident lay brothers who are paid officials of the colony and devote their whole time to these duties; in addition to these two officers, who are Roman Catholics, a Protestant and a Jewish missionary come over to Merxplas at regular intervals from Antwerp with the same end in view.

Discharge of inmates.

When an inmate is about to be discharged, the lay brothers usually write to announce the fact to the man's wife, or in other cases communicate with charitable Shelters, Workmen's Homes, etc. (such, for example, as that which is maintained by the Roman Catholic "Almoners of Labour" at Antwerp, and which was visited by the Committee); but the number of cases, in which it is possible for the lay brothers to intervene in this manner with substantial success, is not large. The other members of the staff at Merxplas also do what lies in their power to help the discharged inmates, by gifts of money where necessary, by communicating with the man's parents and trying to effect a reconciliation

between them and their son who is leaving Merxplas, and by endeavouring to procure employment for the man. The Committee of Visitors, under whose supervision the colonies are placed, try to help men on their discharge, but attain little success in this direction. (As to the work done by the Discharged Prisoners' Aid Society of Antwerp, see *post*, p. 21.) In all cases the discharged men are conveyed free to places where it is likely that they will obtain work, but in choosing such places large cities are avoided.

With two exceptions (which will be explained) the cost of maintenance of the inmates is defrayed in equal thirds by the Central Government, the Province, and the commune, in which the inmate has his settlement. The exceptions are :—

(1) In the case of men sent to Merxplas on being convicted of living on the proceeds of prostitution (their maintenance falls entirely upon the commune in which they have carried on this traffic) ; and

(2) In the case of foreigners (of their cost of maintenance one-third is borne by the Central Government, and two-thirds by the Province in which they were arrested or handed over to justice).

The officials of the colonies, on being asked their opinion as to whether it could be said with truth that any large proportion of the men sent to Merxplas were rehabilitated, morally and socially, by their stay at Merxplas, replied that in very few cases is such reclamation effected.

Maintenance of institution.

Degree of success attained.

HOUSE OF REFUGE AT WORTEL AND HOOGSTRAETEN.

Speaking broadly, Wortel, the second Belgian colony visited by the committee, may be described as a milder Merxplas, and is (to use the official language of the description given to the committee) "intended exclusively for the internment of unfortunate adult males, whose age or infirmities prevent them from working,* or whose lapse into mendicity or vagrancy was caused solely by lack of employment or misfortune, and of those who, with the sanction of a communal authority, present themselves for admission of their own free will. No inmate may lawfully be retained in this house of refuge, except with his free consent, for any period exceeding twelve months."

Object of institution, and class of persons admitted.

This refuge comprises two sections, viz., Hoogstraeten, which "is specially devoted to the non-able-bodied and the sick (though, in order to enable such workshops as are necessary for the purposes of the establishment to be maintained, and also to enable some forms of industrial occupation to be carried on, a certain number of able-bodied men are always kept at Hoogstraeten.)" The other section (Wortel) "receives able-bodied men and also such men, as though no longer fully able-bodied, are yet capable of performing some work." An extension of this house of refuge is stated to be "in process of organisation." This will take the form of a branch establishment (with about 494 acres of land) at Reckheim.

With regard to the classes of men to be found at Wortel, it should be observed that the "voluntary entrants" are allowed to be admitted as often as they can induce the authorities of their commune of settlement to permit them to be so ; the number of such "volunteers" is, however, very insignificant (twenty-nine out of a total of 1,159 inmates on December 31st, 1907).

It is also of interest to note that, as the Wortel officials informed the Committee, many men who have been discharged from Merxplas are afterwards sent—as being no longer able-bodied—to Wortel, it being always in the discretion of the magistrate to which of these two institutions a man brought before him shall be sent.

The total number of inmates at Wortel (including the Hoogstraeten infirmary section) on December 31st, 1907, was 1,159, of whom 646 were classed as able-bodied, and 513 as

Number and ages of inmates.

* It should be understood that men may lawfully be sent, and (as the Committee have been informed), are sent by magistrates to this labour colony on no other ground than that of their being indigent, without having committed any act of mendicity or vagrancy, or been guilty of any conduct in contravention of the laws.

not, and whose age distribution was as follows (the number and age of first offenders in 1907 being also given) :—

Age. (1)	Number of inmates on Dec. 31st, 1907, who were within the age-limits shown in col. 1. (2)	Number of inmates at any time in 1907, who had been sentenced for the first time. (3)
18 years of age to 20 years - -	19	63
21 " " 24 " - -	37	65
25 " " 29 " - -	51	77
30 " " 34 " - -	56	66
35 " " 39 " - -	75	77
40 " " 44 " - -	82	70
45 " " 49 " - -	94	54
50 " " 54 " - -	123	66
55 " " 59 " - -	146	80
60 " " 69 " - -	323	108
70 years and over - - - -	153	38
Total -	1,159	764

It will be observed that no less than 745 of the inmates of the Wortel colony (nearly two-thirds of the whole), were fifty years of age or upwards, while as many as 323 were sixty and under sixty-nine years of age and 153 were seventy years of age and upwards.

As might be expected from the provisions of the Belgian law in relation to this establishment, we find that the number of first offenders at Wortel during 1907 was no less than 764 ; at the same time it is to be noted that out of the total of 1,159 inmates on December 31st, 1907, there were as many as 817 recidivists, of whom 202 had, when they came to Wortel, already been sentenced once ; 126, twice ; 105, thrice ; and no less than 384 four times or oftener.

Among the occupational classes of the 2,278 men, who in 1907 entered Wortel directly (and not by transfer from another establishment), day labourers were the most numerous (380), followed by agricultural labourers (305), navvies and well-sinkers (128), weavers* (125), and bricklayers (108).

The meals served to the inmates (other than non-able-bodied men requiring special dietary) are as follows :—Breakfast : whcaten bread, chicory and milk. Dinner : soup made with meat, rice, and vegetables, or with potatoes, American bacon, vegetables and vinegar, or with haricot beans, onions, lard and vinegar, or with dried peas, rice, lard, vegetables and vinegar ; the soup in each case being accompanied with barley beer. Supper : soup made with potatoes, rice, vegetables, and lard ; all kinds of soup are flavoured with salt and pepper.

For those requiring special dietary the Wortel food scale includes coffee, milk, pork and (ordinary) beer.

Wortel (including Hoogstraeten) possesses no less than 2,669 acres of land ; and a large number of the inmates are employed in agriculture and horticulture ; but this work does not yield a profit, because in so many cases the men put to it are men who have no knowledge of field or garden work, and who are put to it only because they know no trade or none of the kinds carried on at the colony. These include cabinet-making, painting, locksmiths' work, stove making, blacksmiths' work, weaving (cotton and woollen fabrics), tailoring, boot-making, and saddlery, as well as building work of various kinds. There are also gas works, a malt-house, a brewery, a soap factory, a cart-building workshop, a slaughter-house and a laundry.

The products of these various industries are mainly used in the colony, but some are disposed of to different Government departments, or sold to dealers. The Committee were informed that on the working of the industrial departments of Wortel a profit is earned.

* Compare ante, p. 14.

The wages paid at Wortel are : For inmates in workshops or engaged in building Earnings.
work and certain kinds of farm and garden work from 2d. to 5½d. per day ; for those
engaged in domestic service or in ordinary agricultural work from a little over ¾d. up to
a trifle over 2½d. per day.

Only one-third of the men's earnings is handed to them at once (they being allowed Payment of
to spend this in purchasing minor luxuries at the colony stores), while two-thirds of their earnings deferred.
Wages are retained for them. When the savings thus accumulated for the man amount
to 20s., he is allowed to leave the colony (even before the expiration of the term for which
he had been sentenced to be sent thither).

The sum paid at Wortel as " canteen money " to men incapable of working is a little
over ½d. per day.

The hours of labour at Wortel vary (according to the time of year) from eight per Hours of labour.
day in winter to ten and a half in summer.

In addition to the warders there is stationed at Wortel to assist in the maintenance
of discipline a force of fifty soldiers (infantry) under an officer. But escapes from Wortel
though naturally less common than at Merxplas with its long sentences and harsher
treatment of its inmates) are not infrequent. Thus, in 1907, ninety-one cases of escape
are stated to have occurred at Wortel. In the same year forty-eight cases, in which
inmates who had escaped were brought back to Wortel, are recorded.

Two Roman Catholic priests form part of the staff of the Wortel colony ; and (as Religious
at Merxplas) prisoners of the Protestant or the Jewish faith are regularly visited by ministers instruction.
of their respective persuasions. At the Hoogstraeten infirmary section, the staff includes
a number of nursing sisters.

As has already been mentioned, an inmate of Wortel can claim to be allowed to leave Discharge of
the colony as soon as he has earned and saved 20s. In addition, whenever the director inmates.
of Wortel comes to the conclusion that the time has arrived when a man can properly be
allowed to go, and whether the man himself asks for his discharge or not, he can recommend
the Ministry of Justice to authorise his immediate discharge. In fact, by far the greater
part of the men sent to Wortel appear to get their discharge, by permission given in each
case by the Minister of Justice, before the expiration of their sentence. Thus, in 1907,
18 men only left Wortel because the period for which they had been sent to the colony
had expired, while no less than 1,879 were discharged before such period had expired,
in the order of the Government. So far as concerns the able-bodied inmates of Wortel,
it is stated that the average duration of their stay in the colony is from two to three months.

When a man leaves Wortel, the visiting committee of the colonies do what they
can to assist him to obtain employment and to help him to become independent ; but
their efforts meet with great difficulty. The Ministry of Justice in some cases takes
action for the man's benefit, *e.g.*, by getting an old man, past work, into an almshouse.
The Wortel officials also apply to the communal authorities of the man's place of settle-
ment, urging them to find room for him in an almshouse or otherwise to assist him.

Speaking generally, the officials of the colonies stated that more success is attained Degree of success
at Wortel than at Merxplas in securing the moral and social rehabilitation of the inmates. of colony.
In any event (it was observed), it is beyond question that, in those cases which have
occurred, in which certain large towns have tried the experiment of not sending their
vagrants and beggars to Wortel, but instead, migrating them to country districts, in which
employment had been secured for them, the results obtained were by no means satisfactory.

It remains to state that the cost of maintaining the inmates of the Wortel colony Maintenance in
halls, in the case of the non-able-bodied, entirely upon their commune of settlement, in institution.
that of the able-bodied, as to one-third upon the Province concerned, and as to the remaining
two-thirds upon the Central Government. With respect, however, to the persons sent by their
own request, and with the sanction of their respective communes, the whole cost has
to be borne by such communes. In cases in which the Central Government authorises
a man's admission to the colony, it has to defray the entire cost of his maintenance. With
regard, however, to persons of other than Belgian nationality, two-thirds of the cost
of maintenance have to be paid (so far as concerns able-bodied inmates) by the Province
in which the man was arrested or handed over to justice ; as to the non-able-bodied
foreigners, the entire cost is borne by the Central Government.

Suggested improvements in the present system.

In regard to possible improvements in the present system, the officials, on being asked by the Committee to express their views, suggested as deserving of consideration two important alterations. In the first place, they would give up the plan adopted under the existing law of placing the decision whether a given man shall be sent to the strict repression of Merxplas or to the milder *regime* of Wortel, in the hands of the magistrate by whom the man is tried, and would, in future, allow his question to be decided, after the man arrived at the colonies, by the officials charged with the administration of these establishments. In the next place, they would, in future, retain each offender in his own "country" (*e.g.*, a Flamand in a Flemish district) by establishing a colony (in the nature of that at Wortel) in proximity to each large town in each of the Provinces of Belgium. With respect to the existing arrangements at Wortel, the only suggestion made by the director of that establishment was that he would like to be permitted to discharge from Wortel all the men who ought not to be there, such as old men, who ought to be provided for in almshouses, but who will not go into such houses, because they do not like the life there. In his opinion, most men of this class ought to leave Wortel.

In addition to the remarks of the colony officials just noted, much matter of great interest in relation to the question of possible improvements in the existing system in relation to the Belgian labour colonies is contained in a letter, which, subsequently to the visit of the Committee to Merxplas and Wortel, M. Louis Stroobant, the Director of Merxplas, was so good as to address to the Secretary of the Committee. The suggestions of this official will be given here in their entirety. M. Stroobant remarks :—

(1) THE AGED.—Each commune should be placed under the obligation to maintain its own aged and incurable poor, and this, whatever may be the antecedents or the moral character of individuals.

(2) THE UNEMPLOYED WORKMEN AND OCCASIONAL (*i.e.*, NON-HABITUAL) VAGRANTS.—In proximity to every county town there should be established a special workshop. This special workshop, which should be under the management of the county authorities, should be open only to unemployed workmen belonging to the county, and to no others. This special workshop should be a place, to which no stigma of pauperism or taint of dishonour should attach, and in connection with this institution local visiting committees would find awaiting them duties of much distinction in relation to the work of promoting the moral and social rehabilitation of, and obtaining employment for their fellow citizens—men, whose rehabilitation would be the less difficult to achieve, inasmuch since they would, for the most part, be personally known to the members of these local committees.

Note.—In my opinion, the German system of travellers' homes, founded by Pastor Bodelschwing—shelters receiving without discrimination every and any penniless tourist—merit condemnation, because these institutions put a premium on vagrancy.

In reality, what is wanted is the exact opposite, *i.e.*, to prevent vagrants from leaving their own Province.

The tramps—a thoroughly dangerous class—ought to be treated on the same footing as professional vagrants, and should be put into prison.

(3) THE ABLE-BODIED PROFESSIONAL VAGRANTS.—These are men who are a nuisance to the community, and who have given convincing proof of the bad lives which they lead. It is the duty of the State, no matter what the cost may be, to rid society of this pestilent element. It is by no means necessary to put men of this type into cells costing, on the average, £280 a piece; what is required, is to force these men to work for their living, to compel them to adopt habits of industry, sobriety, order, cleanliness, and regularity, and to instil into them the consciousness of the duty which they owe to the community in which they live.

Merxplas has furnished the proof that it would be possible, without incurring any objectionable consequences, to open, say, for example, in some uncultivated part of England an establishment of a character partly agricultural, partly industrial, in which vagrants would be competent to undertake the reclamation of the waste land on which, and the construction of the buildings in which, they would themselves be employed and housed.

I should propose for this institution, intended to secure the repression of habitual vagrancy, a *regime* of a character by no means of excessive severity; and this for the reason, that, all things being taken into account, the persons to be detained in such a place cannot be considered as out-and-out loafers. On the other hand, I do not suggest that this institution should be a Garden of Eden, or a Capua; for if that were the case, then the immediate result of its establishment would be to swell the population of this place to an enormous figure.

As to that class of habitual vagrants which is composed of aged and incurable persons, if the local authorities of their communes should refuse to take upon themselves the duty of providing these people with proper shelter, I would have them placed—as a matter of right, which they could claim without denial—in separate divisions of my proposed English Merxplas, where they should receive such care and attention as is demanded by their age and infirmities, the charge for their maintenance being made fairly high, and the communes concerned being in every case compelled to defray this charge.

In any case, as a matter of general principle, I am of opinion that it is absolutely necessary to throw upon the communes of settlement some part of the cost of maintenance, so that the communal authorities shall find themselves compelled to take upon their own shoulders—so far as possible—the burden of finding accommodation for their own poor.

So far as concerns hooligans, prostitutes' bullies, tramps, and other such anti-social persons, whose morals are of a doubtful character, individuals belonging to these classes should never be admitted to the special workshops, but should, instead, be incarcerated in the appropriate repressive establishment maintained by the State for their reception.

DISCHARGED PRISONERS' AID SOCIETY AT ANTWERP.

At Antwerp there is in operation a charitable society, which endeavours to assist Object of Socié'y. prisoners (including persons detained in the Belgian labour colonies) on their discharge.

The Committee had a long interview with M. Hareng, the active Vice-President of the Antwerp Society (*Comité de Patronage, Détenus et Libérés: Enfants mis à la Disposition du Gouvernement et Moralement Abandonnés*), in the course of which many details of interest in relation to the work carried on by this Association were learned.

The committee of visitors of Merxplas, already mentioned in describing that colony, and the members of which visit Merxplas and Wortel regularly, are always at the disposal of the inmates about to leave those institutions who can and do apply to them for assistance in obtaining a living after their discharge. The visiting committee communicate, with this end in view, with the Ministry of Justice; and that Office, if the occasion requires, passes the case on to this Prisoners' Aid Society, to which the Government supplies any funds which may be necessary in order to cover any deficit in its balance-sheet.

The work done by this society is of three classes:—

Work done by
Society.

(a) In special cases (when the commune of settlement is poor) they send assistance to the families of men detained at one or other of the labour colonies.

(b) They send discharged inmates of the labour colonies to rejoin their families in Belgium.

(c) They assist such men to emigrate from Belgium.

The emigration work carried on by this society is of an "unofficial" nature, which Emigration work. is indispensable, because foreign Governments, e.g., that of the United States, object strongly to the official exportation of undesirable characters.

The first step taken is to induce the man, who is about to leave the colony, to consent to the accumulation of his earnings there, to which he will be entitled on his discharge, being sent to M. Hareng towards payment of his passage money. Then they write to the man's family, and urge them to pay some part of the expenses of emigration. While waiting for his ship to sail, the man is boarded, at the cost of the society (1s. 4 $\frac{3}{4}$ d. per day) at a shelter (maintained by charity) at Antwerp.

The society uses the man's savings, so far as they will go, supplemented by any money that his family may have contributed, to purchase his passage ticket, always, however, giving the man a small sum (usually 8s.) for his expenses on board. (The rest of the passage money, if necessary, is paid by the society out of its own funds.) The balance, if any, of the man's savings is sent by the society to its own correspondent at the place to which the man's ship is bound, who meets him on his arrival. Most of the society's correspondents are men who were assisted by it to emigrate.

The men who are emigrated in this manner leave their families behind them, but send them money, as they earn it in their new home, and ultimately send their wives and children enough money to bring them out to join them. In some cases the emigrants send the money that they earn abroad to M. Hareng to keep for them. It sometimes occurs that the men make considerable sums, and are able to return to Belgium and rejoin their families.

M. Hareng declared that no one of the men, whom his society has assisted to emigrate, has ever been sent afterwards to Merxplas.

BELGIAN PRISONERS' AID SOCIETIES GENERALLY.

Other prisoners'
aid Societies.

According to a Report issued in 1902 by the Belgian Royal Commission on Prisoners' Aid Societies (a permanent body attached to the Ministry of Justice) there were then in existence in Belgium, whether in active operation or not (*établis, en principe*), twenty-eight societies (in addition to that at Antwerp just described) established with the object of affording aid to discharged prisoners and protection to children left without proper parental or other control, and to insane persons at Brussels, Louvain, Nivelles, Malines, Turnhout, Lierre, Hasselt, Tongres, Liège, Verviers, Huy, Seraing-Hollogne, Arlon, Marche, Neufchâteau, Namur, Dinant, Mons, Charleroi, Tournai, Ghent, Termonde, Audenarde, Bruges, Courtrai, Ypres, Furnes and Thielt. But according to a letter received by the secretary of this Committee from M. Dom, there are only four or five of these societies which really do any work in affording aid to discharged prisoners, the most active being that at Antwerp, visited by the Committee, and that at Tournai; but the Report for 1907 of the Tournai Society, of which M. Dom has kindly furnished a copy, shows that it works only upon a quite insignificant scale. It gives relief in money only, and makes no attempt at finding employment for the vagrants and mendicants who seek its help. To succeed in finding employment for such men is (M. Dom observes) very difficult. Indeed, M. Dom considers it to be a harder task to convert a tramp into an honest workman than to secure the moral and social rehabilitation of an out-and-out criminal. To quote M. Dom—

To turn a vagabond into a worker is nothing less than to effect a miracle; while, on the other hand, it is possible to rehabilitate a man who has been sent to prison for a crime or misdemeanour.

And what I have just said applies with approximate accuracy and to the same extent to Wortel and Merxplas. In my opinion both of these establishments are first and foremost works of social self-preservation. Of the total population of these establishments nine-tenths are mere social wreckage, for the rehabilitation of which nothing can be done. These men are just cleaned out morally, physically and intellectually. Taking this point of view, I consider that, while they ought to be dealt with with a firm hand, many of them are worthy of pity, being, in fact, only partially responsible. For men of this class what is required is a treatment as humane as possible. What I should advocate would be a very minute classification, starting with treatment of a strictly repressive character and ending with a treatment of a purely infirmary nature. Certainly this is the system actually applied at Wortel and Merxplas; but I should like to see it carried still further preserving always the feature of compulsory labour.

THE GERMAN EMPIRE.

THE POOR LAW SYSTEM OF HAMBURG.

Poor Law relief in the German Empire is organised under a twofold system of legislation :—

(a) Federal; and (b) State.

Poor Relief under
Federal legisla-
tion.

So far as the Federal legislation is concerned, this is comprised in the Imperial Law of Settlement of June 6th, 1870, amended March 12th, 1894. This law provides for the relief of every person, who is unable to procure for himself, and for his family (if any) either out of means which he possesses, or by the possession and the exercise of capacity to perform labour, the necessities of life, and who does not, in fact, receive from some source or other such maintenance, and this, whether the man's need shall be permanent or temporary. The law provides for the supply of the man's necessities by Poor Law Councils of two classes: the Local Council, whose area is the parish, which in Germany is usually the unit of administration; and the Provincial Council, whose area is the Province. It should, however, be understood, that, while the German law acknowledges the legal duty of the Poor Law Council to supply relief, no right to enforce his claim to receive relief is accorded to the man in need, who can only dispute a decision of the Council refusing him relief by way of administrative appeal.

While providing in the manner just stated for the relief of distress, the Federal legislation does not prescribe either the methods to be adopted in the administration of this relief, or the measure of the relief to be accorded in each case, these matters being left to be determined by the legislation of each particular State of the German Empire.

So far as the State of Hamburg is concerned—that Hanseatic city enjoying State Poor Relief in rights—the legislation governing this matter is contained principally in the Law of Hamburg under September 11th, 1907 (by which the Law of May 18th, 1892, previously in force on this State legislation subject, was repealed).

Under this legislation the duty of carrying out the obligations of the State of Hamburg Administration in relation to its distressed citizens is entrusted to an organisation bearing the title of the Central Poor Law Office. This office is directed by a Central Poor Law Council consisting of three members of the Hamburg Senate, one person appointed by the Finance Committee (a body composed partly of members of the Lower House, who form a majority and partly of members of the Senate), and fifteen members of the Lower House of the Hamburg Legislature, appointed by that House to serve for a period of five years. All the Standing Committees of the Hamburg Legislature are composed in part of members of the Hamburg Senate, in part of members appointed by the Lower House, as a rule, from a list of persons nominated (three nominations being made for each vacancy) by the particular Standing Committee concerned. In regard, however, to the Finance Committee, a fourth name may be added to the list by a committee of the Lower House.

At the head of the entire administration of the Poor Law system is an officer, termed the director of the Poor Law.

Hamburg is divided into eleven Poor Law divisions, and 121 Poor Law districts. To each district is attached a number of "Helpers," as a rule, not more than fifteen for each district. (For details with respect to the functions performed by the Helpers at Hamburg, see *post*, pp. 34, 35.)

Every year the Central Poor Law Council sends in to the Hamburg Legislature an estimate intended to cover the Poor Law expenditure of the next budget year. Should occasion require (as is the case in times of industrial depression) a supplementary estimate is brought forward, and (as the Committee was informed) is invariably passed.

The duty of the representative of the Finance Committee is to satisfy himself by proper inquiries, that the sums voted for Poor Law purposes are applied in accordance with the Poor Law estimates; but he has no power to veto any expenditure.

Within each Poor Law division the administration of the Poor Law (except in so far as concerns the homeless poor, as to whom, see *post*, p. 40) is supervised by a Divisional Council, and within each Poor Law district by a Direct Committee. District Committees. Divisional Councils.

Each Divisional Council consists of the Divisional President (who is a member of the Central Poor Law Council, chosen from among the representatives on that body of the Lower House, and who presides over its deliberations) and of the different chairmen of the various District Committees having jurisdiction within its area. This Council meets, as a rule, once in every month.

So far as concerns the District Committees, each of these bodies consists of the district chairman (who is chosen by the Central Poor Law Council out of a list of three names submitted by the Divisional Council concerned, must be on the Hamburg voters' list, and holds office for four years), and of all the helpers serving within its area; the Poor Law doctor, under whose charge the district is placed, attends the meetings (which are held once a month), and has a consultative voice in the proceedings. (For further details with respect to the duties assigned to the Poor Law doctors, see *post*, p. 35.)

The total number of the helpers in the different districts of Hamburg, is 1,500. Each Selection of helper is chosen by the Divisional Council out of a list of two names submitted by the helpers. District Committee concerned, and holds office for four years. The law enacts, that "the helpers must be adult subjects of the German Empire. As a rule, such persons should be appointed helpers as either reside or have their place of business within the district concerned or in proximity thereto." The helpers appear to be selected from nearly all classes; some are merchants or shop-keepers; others are lawyers, clergymen, doctors, dentists, or chemists; a few are undertakers; others are officials of one kind or another; others are occupiers of workshops in various skilled trades, or independent artisans, but no wage-earning workman (working under an employer) is a helper. A few of the helpers are members of the Social Democratic Party. There is no Trade Union secretary among the helpers. Formerly women were ineligible as helpers, but under the new law (referred

Women helpers. to above), which came into force on January 1st, 1908, "persons of the female sex may be elected as helpers, but only in case their nomination by the District Committee shall have been voted by at least a three-fourths majority of the members present."

Women
assistants.

The law, moreover, provides that the male helpers may be assisted by women appointed by the Divisional Council, on the proposal of the District Committee, to act as assistants. These women assistants may be entrusted by the district chairman with the care of special cases, in regard to which they are then allowed to exercise independent functions. It is also provided that the women assistants shall be allowed to attend the meetings of the District Committee, but in a consultative capacity only, except in relation to the special cases just referred to, as to which they are given voting power.

This Committee were, however, informed that the power of appointing women assistants (which also existed under the previous law) is very seldom indeed exercised, the rare exceptions (about twelve in all) being wives of male helpers. For the most part the male helpers do not view with favour the idea of being assisted by women; nor did this idea appear to meet with approval on the part of the head officials of the Poor Law Office, whose opinion the Committee asked on the subject.

Number of
women helpers.

With respect to women helpers, the Committee were told that the number so far appointed is not more than six or seven.

Speaking generally of the assistance which women could be expected to render, the Poor Law officials referred to said that but little help was to be expected from women, partly because so few women possess sufficient leisure to do the work required, and also because women have not the knowledge of facts as to the manner in which the working-classes earn their living, spend their earnings, etc., which is indispensable in any person who is to be really useful in the capacity of helper.

Number of poor
in Hamburg.

The total number of the cases dealt with in the course of July, 1908, by the Hamburg Poor Law system, the outlines of which have just been described, was 8,788, each "case" being (as the Committee were informed) estimated to comprise 1.94 individuals.

The actual operation of this system may be briefly explained by describing the whole process of distributing relief* as it is, in practice, carried out.

Distribution of
relief.

A man in distress will call upon the chairman of the District Committee of the Poor Law area in which he resides, to whom all applications for relief have to be made in the first instance. The chairman may perceive that the circumstances are such that the applicant is not entitled to any assistance from the Poor Law. In that case the chairman will at once refuse the man's application.† If, however, the chairman is of opinion that a *prima facie* case for relief is made out, then he assigns the case to one of the helpers of the district, selected according to capability and suitability. Before the present system was introduced (in 1893), the practice prevailed of allocating to one and the same helper all the cases occurring in one particular street or block; but this practice was found to possess serious disadvantages. In the first place, the helper tended to become (as was said) a sort of local despot within the territory assigned to him. In the next place this territorial allocation of cases made it impossible to secure that each case should be dealt with by a helper whose special qualities fitted him to deal successfully with that case. For these reasons this practice was given up in favour of that described above.

The helper to take charge of the case having been selected, the chairman, at once and before any action is taken in the matter by the helper, sends the applicant to the Central Poor Law Office, bearing with him a notification of his application and of the name of the assigned helper which he is directed to hand over to the staff of that office

The next step is the preliminary examination of the applicant by experienced officials at the Central Office, all the particulars being entered on an inquiry form (on which the queries are printed with blanks left for the answer). The questions asked include the

* It should be understood that in many cases the poor ask the chairman of the District Committee or the helper, not for relief of any kind, but for advice. Such requests are complied with, though to do so forms no part of the official duties of these honorary officers.

† The Committee were told that no statistics of the number of cases in which relief is refused, either by a chairman or by a District Committee, or by a Divisional Council, exist.

items usual in such cases, and it will only be necessary to note that they cover such inquiries as the trade followed; the earnings of applicant (or, if a married woman, of her husband); his or her means, if any; membership of sick fund under the German insurance laws; receipts under any of such laws (including sick pay, compensation for accident, invalidity or old-age pension); relief obtained on previous applications; size of family, their state of health, employment and earnings; children not living at home (similar particulars as for the applicant), together with further inquiries as to the relations of the applicant and their financial position.

The Committee were allowed to attend at the examination of applicants for relief, Examination of applicants for relief. at the Central Poor Office, and to take note of the questions asked of and answers given by them. The details asked for and supplied by the first two persons, who, on this occasion, came before the investigating officials, may be thus summarised:—

The first applicant was the widow of a ship carpenter on the ss. "Idea" (Hamburg-American Line), who died in May, 1908, leaving three children (ages, ten, eight and one). She stated that she "had no employment," and also that she "earns 1s.* per week;" that she possessed no property, that she received no pension under the insurance laws, and had no income from charity or any other source; that neither she nor her husband had ever been convicted of any offence; that her own parents are both dead; that her late husband's father was a peasant owning a small house, but no land. She carries on a bread shop, paying £45 a year rent, and does not let off any part of the premises. The business yields no profits, and she has given notice to determine the tenancy on October 1st, 1908. Her brother, a single man, whose earnings are 24s. a week, lives with her as a lodger, paying 12s. a week for board, lodging and washing.

No question was asked as to the earnings of her late husband; it appears probable that the rates of wages paid to the crews of the Hamburg-American vessels are well known to the Poor Law officials.

The second applicant was a single woman, born in 1879, of obviously feeble intellect, who was formerly a domestic servant, but was afterwards employed for four weeks in a cleaning and dyeing works. She gave birth ten days ago to an illegitimate child, and is now unemployed. She was insured under the sickness insurance law, and receives (for four weeks from her confinement) 6s. a week from the sick fund in which she was insured. She has no savings or other means. She said that she paid 2s. a week rent. Her own mother is a widow, who earns nothing and is partly supported by the applicant. She has four brothers who live at Hanover, but states that she is unable to give their surname, which she does not know. She has three sisters two of whom are married (names given), while one is single and lives with the applicant's mother. She was never convicted of any offence, and was at no time a charge on the Poor Law, inmate of hospital, etc. She was delivered at the house of a midwife. The child is at present with the applicant, but will to-day go to be boarded-out at a cost of 20s. per month. No guardian (see *post*, pp. 49-51) has yet been appointed for her child. She says that she had never previously given birth to a child. She gave the name of the father of this child, whom she has never seen since, being admitted into the house by a fellow-servant of hers, whose sexual morality was low, this man—a total stranger to her—entered her bedroom and seduced her. She says that the name of this man was given to her by this fellow servant.

In all cases, which come before the Central Office, its staff look up the previous history of the case (if any) in their books. They also (so far as possible, see *post*, pp. 37-39) find out what assistance the applicant may be receiving from charities, etc., and note the facts, together with any other useful information on the inquiry form. The next step is, that the Central Office gives the notification form and the inquiry form (in a closed cover) to the applicant to take to the helper, whose duty it is to verify the facts by investigation,† to note these on his case paper, and to bring the result of his inquiries before the next meeting of the District Committee. (Though in principle all cases referred to a helper ought to be brought by him before the Committee, it sometimes occurs (as the Committee were informed) that the helper instead reports to the district chairman, that the applicant is not entitled to receive relief, and if the chairman agrees, the case is forthwith dropped.) In cases of sudden and urgent distress, however, the applicant will not be kept waiting for relief until his case has been investigated and a decision upon it arrived at by the Committee. For in cases of this character, not only is a special short inquiry form used, but it is provided that either the chairman, or the helper alone (without having to obtain the concurrence of his chairman), can give the man a small sum of money (up to 5s., but on one occasion only), and in extreme cases the helper can apply to his chairman,

* The German mark is throughout taken as = 1s.

† With regard to the verification of the actual occupation of the applicant, the Committee were informed that this is carried out by the interrogation of his wife and neighbours, and that earnings are verified only in cases in which a doubt as to the truth of the statement made by the applicant arises. The secretary of the Central Poor Office was asked whether, in cases in which it was difficult to ascertain exactly the income of an applicant (which might possibly exceed the amount disclosed), it was the practice to grant a smaller amount of relief in view of such possibility. His reply was in the negative.

who then has power to grant, as a temporary measure, relief in money or otherwise, as fully as could be done by the District Committee. All such temporary relief, however, requires to be confirmed by the District Committee at its next meeting.

Duties of helpers.

In relation to the duties, which the Hamburg helper has to carry out, it is of interest to note that all specially troublesome inquiries (which a helper could not conveniently make himself) are made for him by the staff of the Central Office, all necessary visits being paid and correspondence conducted by members of this staff, and the resulting information conveyed to the helper. The object of this arrangement is not only to economise the time and labour of the volunteer helper, but also to obtain (*e.g.*, from the police and from the judicial authorities) information (as to antecedents, convictions, judicial separations or divorces, etc.) which would not readily be supplied to the helper himself. It is worthy of remark, that the office messenger (who is employed in easy cases) and the superior official (who is sent to make more difficult investigations) are always despatched in plain clothes, and carry full official papers of identification, proving their authority to ask for information for public purposes. The Committee were informed that no objections are raised by applicants for relief, when it is found necessary to seek information about them from their employers, nor do such men appear to dread the fact of their being the subject of inquiry coming to the ears of their fellow-workmen, and that it is not found that employers are prejudicially influenced against one of their workmen by reason of inquiries being made about him by the staff of the Poor Law Office.

Another matter deserving attention is the method adopted for investigating (as above mentioned) the assistance (if any), which an applicant for Poor Law relief may be receiving from charitable institutions or individuals. This investigation is based upon the reports of a special "Charitable Information Bureau," maintained by the Hamburg Municipality (independently of the Poor Law administration), and which is carried on in rooms situated in the same building with the Central Poor Office. Of this bureau a full account will be found later on (pp. 37-39) in the present Report.

So far we have been considering the steps taken in regard to a new case, up to the time when it is brought before the District Committee by the helper in charge of the matter. Naturally, a great part of the time and energies of a District Committee is taken up with the consideration of old cases; and it may be proper to explain in this place the duties imposed upon the helper in relation to old cases. The helper is expected to keep each of his cases under constant supervision by personally visiting the family in their home so as to be at all times thoroughly acquainted with the varying circumstances of his clients, and with their exact needs and claim to relief from time to time, and so as to be in a position to make to the District Committee such reports as may be necessary to serve as the basis of their deliberations in regard to the continuance of, or any requisite alteration in, the relief afforded.

A helper is also frequently asked by his chairman to visit a poor family in order to give advice, no relief being asked for (*see note * at p. 24, ante.*)

Notes of "cases" visited.

With respect to the visits of the helper to the homes of his "cases," it should be mentioned, that two of the Hamburg helpers (accompanied in each case by the chairman of his District Committee) were good enough to permit the members of this Committee to join them in their rounds through two of the poorest districts of the city, giving them full information with respect to each of the families visited. The notes made on each of these rounds are printed below.

I.

Visited cases in company with Herr A., helper, and with Herr B., Chairman, in the poor district in Hamburg. Herr A. is a dealer in ivory, tortoise-shell and horn. Herr B. is a wholesale tailor. The houses were old houses with narrow courts between them and very steep stairs, and little odds and ends of rooms.

We visited four cases, and then Herr A. had to go back to his work. He said that he paid the rent direct to the landlord when the applicant was likely to make a bad use of the relief given him. All the applicants had free medical treatment in case of illness, and coal in winter. In cases in which there were children, they had clothes and boots, and their boots were also repaired. At times, he was sent for at any hour if the applicants were ill. That sometimes took up a good deal of time. Except in Case No. 4, he thought that other assistance of one kind and another, besides that given by the Poor Law authorities, was received by the applicants. The houses were all old, and would soon be removed. The courts were cleaned daily. On the whole, the rooms were clean.

1. Man and wife; aged people. Man an unskilled labourer. One daughter, married. Son-in-law also an unskilled labourer. He has three children, earns about £25 in the year—an average of about 9s. a week—and can pay nothing towards the keep of his wife's parents. The man receives 14s. a month from the Imperial Sickness Insurance. The allowance made to him is 7s. a month (it was understood that this was paid *monthly*). This would make in all 5s. a week. He adds to this by selling cigars at small public-houses. The rent is £11 10s. a year, or 4s. 5d. a week. They take in a lodger. The rooms were three very small rooms at the top of a house, with some ill-lit space and corners between them. I saw the wife only.

2. Man, 36; a tailor. Has re-married quite lately. He had married his late wife's sister shortly after his wife's death. She had married him for the sake of the children. There were four children, the eldest at a holiday colony, the others at home, but not in the house at the time. The eldest was not the man's child, but the child of his first wife. She would not return home, so the authorities would arrange. The present wife was a good woman. The man earned 15s. to 20s. a week. He received 4s. weekly in supplementation of his small earnings. The rent was 3s. 6d. weekly. The tenement consisted of two rooms, one very small with a bed in it, the other with a window looking into the court, with a table against it at which the man was sewing, and a bed. All seemed dirty. In the little room the woman was in bed with her head covered. The guardian said that she had been knocked about by her husband, and was in bed in consequence. The man was a bad, drinking, violent fellow.

3. In the third case, a tinsmith, the man—a comparatively young man, had become blind. He had two young children. The wife, who seemed a good managing woman, earned 3s. a week charring. The man received 14s. a month from his insurance, and had 5s. a week from the Poor Law. He stands in the streets with a card upon him saying he is blind and sells matches, by which he is said to earn from 6d. to 9½d. a week, but he earns probably more. He was sent to an asylum for the blind, but came back in a fortnight, saying the food was not good enough. He has coals in winter, free medical treatment, and milk. It seemed strange that he should be allowed to go on begging. It was admitted that he ought to be in a blind asylum. He entered on a long, violent harangue about his grievances. The income weekly would appear to be: 5s. relief, 3s. 6d. from the insurance, and 3s. from the wife's charring, plus the proceeds of match-selling. There were two fairly good rooms; rent not noted.

4. Widow, aged 78. Husband had been a bricklayer; he died seventeen years ago. The widow had no old-age or other insurance allowance. Her husband was at work and she was well off when she was of an age to pay, and she did not work herself. Hence she has no claim. Poverty came on her afterwards. She refuses to go into the poorhouse, though she would be much more comfortable there, the helper says. She has a very small room, for which she pays a rent of 2s. a week. She receives 6s. from the Poor Law. The helper said that in this case he thought that there were no means forthcoming from any other source.

II.

The Committee was accompanied by Mr. S. (District Chairman) and Mr. L. (helper).

Seven cases taken at random were visited as follows:—

First Case.—A widow living in a flat; the door was found locked. A neighbour informed us that she had taken the advantage of the fine day and gone for a walk.

Second Case.—A young widow with four children, aged, respectively, 6, 5, 4 and 3. (Her husband died of consumption.) She seemed to be a delicate woman, yet she earned 10s. weekly by taking in washing. The two elder children were at school, and the two younger ones at a crèche, which will be described later. Her home was on the second floor of a flat; there were four rooms, two of which were let off for 6s. per week. The remaining accommodation being limited, it was a great help having all the children away during the day time. Indeed, she could not have earned so much, the helper explained, unless they had taken advantage of the crèche for the two younger children, for whom the Poor Law authority paid 4s. 9½d. per week.

Expenditure.			Income.		
	s.	d.		s.	d.
Rent - - - -	7	1	Relief - - - -	7	6
			Earnings - - - -	10	0
			Rooms let off - - - -	6	0
	7	1		23	6
			Less rent - - - -	7	1
			Net income - - - -	16	5

In addition to the 7s. 6d. relief in money, she was provided with clothing for the children, thus leaving 16s. 5d. for food, fire, light, and other necessities for a family of five persons, also clothing for herself. The rooms were clean and fairly tidy.

Third Case.—Again we found the door locked.

Fourth Case.—A young woman with an illegitimate child. She was a strong, able-bodied woman, earning by laundry work at home 12s. per week. Relief granted was 2s. 6d. per week, making a total of 14s. 6d. weekly income. The rent was 4s. per week, leaving a balance of 10s. 6d. for the maintenance of herself and child. The putative father did not pay anything; he had left the city. It should be stated here that there is another authority for dealing with putative fathers, which enforces contributions towards children's maintenance when they are able to pay. The helper explained in this case that it was useless trying to make him pay, as he was no good. The home consisted of three rooms in a basement, and were fairly clean.

Fifth Case.—A widow with four children.

Sixth Case.—An aged couple.

Seventh Case.—A sick man and his wife. No children. In these cases the people were out, and the doors locked. A little difficulty was experienced in finding the homes of some of the cases.

The Committee next visited the Hanesche Warteschule Crèche, where there were some sixty children. This was in charge of a matron and two young assistants. It was founded by a benevolent gentleman, and is now kept up by public subscriptions. The children are paid for at the following rates:—

One child, 7d.; two children of one family, 9½d.; and three children of one family, 1s. per day. One mid-day meal is provided at no extra cost. The helpers largely take advantage of this crèche for the children of persons in receipt of relief, as in the second case mentioned. The home is not badly planned; when new, it was, no doubt, a very nice house for the purpose; it is, however, now hemmed in by flats four storeys high. The playground behind is small and overshadowed; it lacks free circulation of air. The back playroom inside was badly lighted and ventilated. All the rooms inside were very dirty, neglected and untidy; it is no exaggeration to say that they were filthy. The two gentlemen with us made no apology for its condition; we might, therefore, fairly assume it to have been in its usual state of cleanliness. The helper expressed great satisfaction as to the utility of the institution in assisting them to deal with young children of able-bodied women, which is, no doubt, correct, yet we venture to say that the management was bad, the training and discipline inadequate, and the premises dirty and in disorder. Here there appears to be work for women helpers in insisting upon reasonably good management of an institution for children supported largely by public funds. There is, however, a strong prejudice against women being selected. Out of some 1,500 helpers,

there are only seven women helpers (all the seven were wives of helpers), and twelve assistants. In this district there are none; the chairman was strongly against them. Explaining his objections, he said they were not sufficiently businesslike. The helper said they would be too hard and exacting, particularly with the female applicants.

In regard to earnings, the Chairman said they always verified them where there was an employer, but in cases where work was done at home it was not attempted. It could, however, be taken for granted in all cases where they could not be verified that the earnings would be more than the amount stated.

As to illegitimate children, we were informed that it was a regular practice to grant relief, whether there be one or more, of one mother, even though some of the children were born during the time the mother was in receipt of relief, and that "they were all the more needy when there were more than one."

Temporary cases.—On enquiry whether some of the cases of relief were only temporary, we were informed that it was "once a customer always a customer."

Pensions.—As to persons in receipt of State old-age or invalid pensions or sick allowance, we were told that it was a very common practice to supplement them with relief.

As to payment of rent.—It is a regular practice to give relief for the purpose; one case was cited where arrears to the amount of £4 10s. had accrued and the helper compounded with the landlord for £1 (in order to save the home) providing that the rent in future was paid in advance. In this district out of £150 relief per month £10 was paid for arrears of rent. It is, however, the practice in cases where arrears of rent only are asked, for applicants to be referred to the Central Poor Law Office, where they may get a grant out of a special fund. They are not eligible for assistance out of this fund if they are in receipt of regular relief. Special forms of relief are allowable, such as getting tools out of pawn; it often occurs a second time with the same person. In one case £3 was granted to an aged couple to purchase two young pigs.

In cases of drunkards, relief is often given to the family, and the helper explained that they could not refuse when the family was in need; sometimes they advised the wife to leave her husband, and in other cases they were given an order for the Poor-House, but if not accepted, relief was continued, nothing being done to improve the man's habits.

As to medical relief, all cases are, on application, given an order for the doctor, who certifies if able-bodied, but very few are certified as such; there is always something the matter with such people which entitles them to relief. A helper has power to grant urgent relief up to 5s. in a month; to exceed this amount the consent of the chairman must be obtained. The chairman has power to grant relief up to 16s. A helper may grant relief in kind and buy it where he pleases, except boots, clothing, and bed linen, which are supplied from the Central Office. All relief given must be sanctioned at the monthly meeting of the district; there is very little control over the discretion of a helper; as the chairman said, if there were, "there would be no helpers." It is a rule that a chairman should live in his district, but this instance was an exception; "suitable persons for the purpose cannot in every district be found." The helper had ten cases, which is considered to be too many. The reason given being that "helpers were difficult to get." Applicants are entitled to appeal to the divisional committee if dissatisfied with the decision of the district committee; a few appeals in this district have been made with success.

Several of the cases visited were living in comparatively new flats, and there were many other cases in the same district (not visited) living in quite new buildings. The helper informed us that the builders were anxious to get them let in order to sell them, and they were not so very particular as to the class of tenants. It occurred to the Committee that those in receipt of relief, from a landlord's point of view, are not such undesirable tenants, since their rent is almost sure to be paid.

We have by now made ourselves acquainted with the manner, in which the materials, upon which the District Committee will be able to base its decision with respect to the relief to be granted in each of the cases brought before it by the several helpers at its monthly meeting, are got together.

Before, however, attempting to present a picture of a meeting of this nature, it will be proper to explain what are the rules with respect to the granting of relief, by which under the Hamburg Poor Law system, the action of a District Committee is limited and regulated.

It should be noted in the first place, that the only form of relief, which a District Committee has power to grant, is outdoor relief, all forms of indoor relief (in Poor Law or charitable institutions,* etc.) being under the exclusive control of the Divisional Council, and in the second place, that the regulations provide, that, while outdoor relief may consist of cash, of food, clothing, furniture, fuel, medical attendance, midwifery, sick nursing, medicines, or funeral expenses, it is expressly laid down, that, except under special circumstances, the relief granted shall always take the form of cash payments.

In relation to cash relief the following limits (which must not be exceeded except by the permission of the Divisional Council) are laid down :—

I.—*Continuing allowances must not exceed, in the case of :—*

- (a) Men with no dependants, 22s. per month.
- (b) Women with no dependants, 20s. per month.
- (c) A married couple without children, 25s. per month.
- (d) A family with one to four children (under fourteen), 36s. per month.
- (e) A family with more than four children (under fourteen), 45s. per month.
- (f) A child (whose parents reside in Hamburg) boarded-out in Hamburg—supplement towards cost of maintenance, 10s. per month.

II.—*"One-time" grants (lump sums) must not exceed, in the case of :—*

- (a) Persons with no dependants, 25s.
- (b) Married couples with no children, and families, 30s.

* e.g., private (non-municipal) hospitals, see *post*, p. 36.

The different kinds of cash relief are, by the Hamburg Poor Law Regulations, divided into three classes, viz. :—

(a) "One-time grants."

(b) Continuing allowance

(c) Supplementary relief, the distinction between them, and the circumstances in which each is applicable, being thus defined :—

"One-time cash relief has for its object to remove distress of a *temporary* nature, e.g., payment of a man's rent, getting out of pawn indispensable articles, which he may have pledged, etc.

"Continuing relief (i.e., relief granted on more than one occasion) is a contribution to the cost of the necessities of life in relation to the person or family concerned, and is to be granted in those cases (not being cases in which the appropriate form of relief is, not outdoor relief, but reception in some suitable institution) in which his or their need of assistance is likely to continue for a period or to be permanent.

"In the case of able bodied men or women, continuing relief is to be granted only from month to month, the possibility of obtaining proof of his or her actual needs from time to time being thus secured.

"In the case of persons in need of assistance who are over sixty years of age, and in whose circumstances a change for the better is not to be expected, relief may be granted for any continuous period not exceeding one year. But it is, all the same, the duty of the helper in charge of the case to make periodical investigations so as to ascertain, whether the kind and degree of need, originally shown to exist, remain unaltered.

"In the case of all other persons relief may only be granted for a continuous period not exceeding three months.

"In every case, in which relief is continued for a further period, it is the duty of the helper to make a fresh investigation into the need existing at the time, and to enter in the case paper book, side by side with his proposal as to the relief to be granted, the results of such investigation.

"Supplementary relief is to be granted only in cases, in which the recipient is already in receipt of continuing relief, and for the purpose of satisfying some need of the recipient distinct from and supervening on the general needs existing in the case. If continuing relief has been granted on a scale proportionate to the distress existing in the case, the necessity of supplementing such relief in this manner will seldom arise.

"It is expressly forbidden to grant cash relief for any other purpose than that of providing the necessities of life. This prohibition applies specially to the payment of debts, rates and taxes and fines.* If, in a case in which continuing relief has been granted, it should occur that an attachment is about to be issued sequestrating this allowance, then it is the duty of the helper to inform the Central Poor Law Office of the fact, and that office will endeavour to secure the cancellation of the debts in question.

"The grant of continuous relief in order to provide for what is properly the subject of a one-time grant (e.g., for paying back rent), the true circumstances of the case being thus concealed, is prohibited."

With regard to the granting of relief for the purpose of paying rent, a distinction is, Payment of rent. by the Hamburg regulations, drawn between current and back rent. As to current rent, it is provided that : "A recipient of relief is expected to pay out of the money granted to him as relief, the rent of his dwelling, as it falls due"; and that it is part of the duty of the helper to induce the poor under his charge to pay their rent punctually. So far as concerns back rent, it is laid down that :—

"The granting of assistance towards the payment of back rent, like that of any other debts, does not fall within the sphere of Poor Law relief. Persons not in receipt of such relief, who ask for money with which to pay, must, for this reason, at once be referred, as a general rule, to private benevolence, such as rent assistance societies,† charitable institutions and the Special Fund (see *post*, p. 42). The grant of money towards the payment of back rent can only be made by way of exception, and only if the sanction of the Divisional Council (which is necessary, irrespective of the amount of such grant) shall have been obtained, nor shall any such grant be made except :—

(a) The household goods liable to be seized under distraint by the landlord shall be worth a considerable sum ; or

(b) There is reason to fear that the family will be rendered homeless, and that it will be possible for the people to be provided with accommodation suitable to their needs (e.g., in the case of there being a large number of children in the family) only with a considerable degree of difficulty and by means of pecuniary sacrifices of material amount."

The last provision (as to back rent) is new, and the causes, which led to its insertion in the law which came into force at the beginning of the present year, may appear not difficult to understand, when we remember the important part that the payment of rent plays in the distribution of relief at Hamburg, where the number of cases, in which, in the course of 1907, money was granted for the payment of rent, was 183, the aggregate amount of such grants, "so far as they are distinguished as such in the relief accounts," being £250, equivalent to a little over 27s. per case,‡ while, considerable as this amount

* This provision of the new law is intended (as is stated by the Director of the Poor Law) to put a stop to what was previously a common practice on the part of District Committees.

† There are at Hamburg twenty-nine different charitable institutions, many possessing considerable endowments, which exist solely or mainly for the purpose of assisting poor people to pay their rent.

‡ These figures do not include the large amount paid by way of assistance (not ordinary relief) towards the payment of rent out of the "Special Fund" (see *post*, p. 42).

may appear, it is almost insignificant in comparison with that similarly expended a few years ago (no less than £1,007 in 1900 ; £2,136 in 1899 ; £2,142 in 1898).

Relief in sudden
and urgent
necessity.

With regard to the grant of relief in cases of sudden and urgent necessity, the provisions of the Hamburg Regulations are as follows :—

The President of the Central Poor Law Council is empowered, in cases, in which no delay is possible, to authorise action to be taken of a provisional nature, notwithstanding that, in the regular course of business, such action could not be taken, except by virtue of a resolution passed by a District or a Divisional Council or the Central Poor Law Council, as the case may be.

In cases of sudden and urgent necessity it is the duty of the Divisional President to take in regard to such matters arising within his Division independent action. Requests for action of this nature on the part of Districts should, as a rule, be made to the Divisional President through the Central Poor Law Office. When any such request is made, the relevant documents, especially the case paper, and the records of the case are to be sent simultaneously to him. Any such cases must be reported to the Divisional Council at its next meeting.

The Chairman of a District Committee is empowered, at the request of a helper, in any case of sudden and urgent necessity, to authorise the grant of relief within the limits laid down by these Regulations, such grant being provisional only. Either the Chairman of a District or a helper is empowered, for the purpose of meeting any such urgent need, to give, as provisional relief, up to 5s without any previous sanction being required. Any such cases must be reported to the District Committee at its next meeting.

Position of
"able-bodied"
as to relief.

It is explicitly laid down by the Regulations of the Hamburg Poor Law administration that, save under exceptional circumstances, no able-bodied person is to be considered as having any claim whatever to receive relief of any kind. The only exceptions are defined to be those cases, in which the able-bodied applicant proves, that he has done his best to obtain employment sufficient in amount for his needs, and has failed to obtain such employment ; and in such cases it is permissible to grant to the applicant temporary relief, such grant to be made from month to month only. During the entire period, during which such relief is given, the circumstances of the case must be kept under continuous observation ; and in particular an investigation of these circumstances is to take place prior to each occasion, on which the grant of relief shall be renewed.

The Secretary of the Central Poor Law Office informed this Committee that, in fact, practically the only cases, in which relief was granted to able-bodied men, were those, in which the applicants were men with families dependent on them, to the almost complete exclusion of single men. (As to the manner, in which able-bodied men refused relief are dealt with, see *post*, p. 52.)

Although (as will have been remarked) it is permissible and usual to grant (outdoor) relief from month to month to an able-bodied man with a family dependent on him, no actual limit being fixed defining the *maximum* period during which such relief may be continued, the Committee were informed that, as a matter of practice, it is only in very rare instances that such temporary relief is continued for any lengthy period—such as, for example, during a whole winter. The principle followed is that, providing that a man is willing to work, if he can obtain employment, then his relief is to be continued from month to month until he succeeds in securing employment. As to the test of his real ability or inability to obtain employment, the Poor Law authorities rely on the one hand upon the judgment of the helper in charge of the case ; (the helper, being, as a rule, a man engaged in some form of industry or commerce, and who has at his disposal the very full information about the antecedents of each of his cases which, as will shortly be more fully explained, is contained in carefully kept records, is considered to be well qualified to detect the presence of "work-shyness," where this exists), and on the other hand, upon the reports, which are received from the various Labour Exchanges, to one or other of which the man is invariably referred. (For a brief account of the Hamburg Labour Exchanges and of the manner in which they co-operate with the Poor Law administration, see *post*, pp. 52–54.)

It may be remarked that, although it forms no part of the official duty of a helper himself to obtain employment for a recipient of relief, the committee were informed that he often does this.

In connection with this subject it should be explained that the tests of a man's willingness to work just referred to are the *only* tests applied under the Hamburg system. The Committee inquired whether, in a case, in which the Poor Law authorities are in doubt as to whether a man is or is not really willing to work, if he can get work, they ever

put the matter to the test by refusing the man relief other than admission to the Municipal Poor House (see *post*, pp. 42-46), and received in reply a negative answer, being informed that, so far as married men with families were concerned, such a course of action was practically unknown in the administration of the Poor Law at Hamburg, while, as already noted, no other class of able-bodied men ever receives relief from the Poor Law.

In relation to the treatment of the able-bodied, it is important to note that the duty of affording relief imposed upon the Poor Law authorities under the Hamburg law does not begin only on the day on which a man becomes wholly unemployed, nor does it cease on the day on which he obtains some job of a merely casual nature. For according to the Hamburg definition of distress, a man is a fit subject for relief so long as he is unable "to obtain employment *sufficient in amount for his needs*." Accordingly, if the only work that a man can get, is work of a quite casual nature, say on two days only in each week, that man will ask that his actual earnings shall, by means of a grant from the Poor Law, be made up to such a sum as shall be adequate for the support of himself and his family; and his request will not be refused.

Having now present to our minds the conditions under which a Hamburg District Committee carries on the work entrusted to it, we shall be ready to attend in imagination, as the members of this Committee did in actual fact, a meeting of one of these District Committees, the proceedings at which will be briefly described as they took place.

At 8 p.m. the chairman (in this case a Protestant clergyman) takes his place, the other seats round the large table being filled with the helpers of the district, who are joined later on by the Poor Law doctor. (With respect to the medical side of the Hamburg Poor Law system, see *post*, pp. 35-37.)

Proceedings at a District Committee's meeting.

The chairman calls upon each helper in turn to make his report in relation to the cases under his charge.* The helper has brought with him his report in writing, but brings the facts before the Committee by a concise verbal statement. Of the first twenty cases, which were brought forward on this occasion, a brief account will now be given.

Helper A. had to report one case only, that of a woman of sixty-four, past work. Her allowance is continued for another three months. The chairman asks: "Is there not an adult son of this woman?" The helper promises to look this matter up.

Helper B. brings up four cases. The first is that of two children, to whom the school authorities recommend that boots shall be granted. This is done. In the second case, that of a woman in receipt of an allowance, the helper reports that she has now got work enough to supply her needs, and recommends the stoppage of her allowance. This is adopted. The third case which this helper brought forward was that of a woman judicially separated from her husband (who cannot be found). This woman's earnings have, since the last report on the case, decreased, and now amount to only 2s. a week. In addition, her eldest daughter, who formerly lived with her, has left her. The chairman informs the Committee that this daughter has recently borne a child, and is herself now in receipt of Poor Law relief. The decision of the Committee in this case was that the allowance previously granted, of 16s. per month, should be continued for a further six months. The next case reported on by this helper was that of a woman, whose occupation is that of cashier, and whose earnings were described as "small." This woman has an illegitimate child, six years old, who is living with her married sister. The guardian had granted her (provisionally) 16s. a month, and had paid her for two months (32s.). The woman had recently gone to Kiel, where she was serving in a bar; she had written to her sister that her earnings there were "small"; she wants her (provisional) allowance continued for one further month (making 48s. in all). The helper's action was confirmed, and the woman's request granted (*i.e.*, she receives in all three months' "continuing" relief at the rate of 16s. per month).

Helper C. had two cases to bring forward. In the first case his client is a woman carrying on a small business, and earning 12s. a week. She has also 5s. a week from the father of an illegitimate child of hers, and at present receives from the Poor Law an outdoor relief allowance of 14s. per month. Thus, her weekly income is about 20s. a week. She asks that her monthly allowance may be raised from 14s. to 16s. Her application was refused. The helper next reports a case, which he has been investigating, and in which the recipient of a continuous allowance of 16s. a month is a woman judicially separated from her husband (whose whereabouts it is not possible to ascertain), and whose earnings are 2s. a day. She has a child of four years, boarded out by her at a cost of 16s. per month. She is at present receiving 16s. a month from the Poor Law, which the chairman moved to reduce to 12s., but the Committee decided that the previous allowance of 16s. a month should be continued for another six months.

* It will be understood that in no case does an applicant for relief appear in person before a District Committee.

Helper D. brings up no less than nine cases. In the first he asks for the continuance in favour of a boot-repairer, aged seventy-one, of his present allowance of 20s. a month. He reports that his client is a man of respectable character, and that his earnings decline because his old clients keep dying off. This allowance was continued for a further period of six months. This helper's second case was that of an old woman, also aged seventy-one, who suffers from weakness of the eyes and a bad leg, and is unfit to do any work. She receives some help from her son, but this amounts to very little. Her allowance of 16s. per month is continued for another six months. Case No. 3 is that of a widow, aged sixty-three, who can earn only 2s. a week. She gets help from her children to the extent of 4s. 3d. per week, and her son, a respectable workman, lives with her as lodger, paying 15s. a week for his board and lodging. The helper says that, no doubt, this son requires that he shall be provided with good food, and the mother, no doubt, gets some of it. This woman has no claim to an invalidity pension under the Insurance Laws, because the minimum number of contributions (200) had not been paid by her. Her present allowance of 8s. per month is continued for six months, and her request to be supplied with a woollen coverlet is granted. Case No. 5 is a new case recently referred to this helper. But the woman concerned has not yet come to see the helper. He has, however, discovered that this woman, whose husband met with a fatal accident, is now receiving an allowance under the Insurance Laws. The Committee decided to close this case. Case No. 6 is that of a widow carrying on a coopering business, and paying a rent of £15 a year; the helper doubts if the earnings of the business suffice to cover this rent. A son of this widow lives with her and helps her in her business. No other children of hers live with her, but the helper says that it is possible that she has other children living, but, if so, it is probable that they will have children of their own. This woman has for a long time received from the Poor Law 18s. per month; and this allowance the Committee continued for a further six months. In Case No. 7 the application comes through the helper from an aged woman, who is past work, except that she cleans the steps of the house in which she lives, and in return is not asked for rent. She is in receipt of an allowance of 18s. a month, which she would wish, in future, to have paid fortnightly. Her application was granted, the allowance being continued for six months. The next case (No. 8) is that of a domestic servant, whose wages are, according to her own account, £12 per year, but according to the statement of her employer, £15. This woman has had two illegitimate children, each by a different father. The father of one child pays its mother 12s. a month towards its support, but the putative father of the other infant (who is a seaman) cannot be found, and does not contribute towards its maintenance. The two children have been boarded-out with a woman, who agreed to take, and has so far received 36s. per month for their keep. On the previous day the helper learned that this servant girl had suddenly left her employer, and was about to get married. The girl's payments to the woman, with whom her two children were boarded, had ceased; and this woman declared that, unless she received their board-money, she would turn the children out. The chairman moved that this girl should receive 24s. for one month. This was agreed to by the Committee, as a "one-time" grant. Case No. 9 was that of another servant girl, who had an illegitimate child, for whose keep she was paying 16s. a month. This child's father is not paying anything towards its keep. The girl is now earning wages of 25s. per month; but the helper points out that while she was pregnant she had been earning nothing, and stated that she was at present quite penniless. On the case being discussed it was discovered that the child just mentioned was the second illegitimate child that this girl had borne. The helper in this case had given the girl 10s.,* at the suggestion of the chairman, which sum the helper (following, as he said, the usual course) had given in advance, *i.e.*, to cover the month of July last, but the chairman told the Committee that his meaning had been that the 20s. was to be given to the girl at the end of the present month (August). The decision of the Committee was that the case should be brought up again after further investigation, and that in the meantime the gift of 10s. made by the helper should be confirmed, and a further "one-time" grant of 10s. to cover the coming month of September, should be made to the girl in question.

Helper E. had only one case to bring forward. He recommended that the allowance of 16s. a month, at present paid to a married couple described as "old," (but neither of whom had yet attained the age of sixty), should be continued for another three months; and his wishes were promptly acceded to.

Helper F. had three cases to report. In the first the case was that of a woman of fifty-six (termed an "old" woman), who has two sons and one daughter, and was stated to earn 3s. a week. The daughter is in an infirmary on account of illness; one of the sons is an epileptic sufferer, he lives at home, and pays his board and lodging; as to the other son no particulars were mentioned. This woman's present allowance of 10s. per month was continued (for three months); as was also the allowance (20s. per month) of this helper's next client (a widow with children to support). Case No. 3 of helper F. was that of a servant girl with an illegitimate child, for whose board she pays (out of her earnings of 30s. a month) at the rate of 20s. a month. The putative father of the child is not contributing towards its support. This girl had been receiving an allowance of 8s. a month, but the Committee decided that this relief should now wholly cease.

The Secretary of the Central Poor Law Office had been good enough to accompany the members of this Committee when they attended the meeting of this District Committee; and the chairman, stating that he desired to benefit by the presence of this experienced official, observed that there existed in relation to a certain class of cases a great want of uniformity in the relief granted on different occasions by the various District Committees, and that he should be glad if the Secretary would give this Committee the benefit of his advice on this matter. He referred to the allowances made to servant girls and other mothers of illegitimate children who, unless their wages were supplemented

Allowances to
mothers of
illegitimate
children.

* This gift was, of course, in excess of the powers of the helper (see *ante*, p. 25); but neither as to this irregularity nor as to a subsequent case (not among those of which the particulars are noted in the text), in which 6s. had been given in a similar manner by the helper, did the report of the matter give rise to any observation whatever in regard to the breach of the regulations.

in this manner, would find it impossible to pay the cost of boarding out these infants. "Could the Secretary advise as to the proper amount of such supplements? Could he lay down, as a general principle, that the supplement in these cases should be such that when the Poor Law allowance was added to the girl's earnings, the sum of these two sources of her income should amount to some definite figure, and, if so, to what figure?"

The Secretary of the Central Poor Law Office, in his reply to these questions, stated that, in his opinion, it was not possible to lay down a general rule of the kind suggested, since the circumstances of different cases were so very diverse. Thus, in reckoning what a domestic servant earns, one has to consider whether she receives a present in kind or cash at Christmas; and speaking generally, the amount which different girls receive in "tips" varies enormously. As a rule, the District Committees do not give in these cases by way of supplement to the earnings of a domestic servant who is the mother of an illegitimate child more than 10s. a month (*see* the scale printed at p. 28, *ante*). But although the usual cost of a child boarded out by the Hamburg Poor Law authorities may be taken to be on the average from 20s. to 22s. a month, it must be remembered that the price charged for taking in a child varies in the different districts of Hamburg; and again, a different price will be charged according to whether the child is in good health or ailing. "You cannot make a scale." After a brief conversation between the members of the Committee on the question thus raised by the chairman, the meeting closed. A copy of the decisions arrived at in regard to the cases brought under its consideration would in accordance with the regulations, be sent in due course to the Central Poor Law Office.

The duties of the helper under the Hamburg system, whether when he is working (under the supervision of his chairman) as visitor among the poor, or is taking part, as member in the deliberations of the District Committee, have now been explained with as much fulness as considerations of space permit. It remains, however, to add, that another duty of great importance which is imposed upon the helper is that of keeping the Central Poor Law Office informed, step by step, throughout the whole pendency of each case, of the manner, in which the case is dealt with, whether by the grant or the refusal of relief, and whether the relief granted be a "one-time" grant, or a "continuing" allowance. The particulars thus supplied are (except in the case of merely casual relief "one-time" grants) entered by the helper (in a separate book for each case), this book forming a complete case-paper history of the matter from the day, on which the chairman of the district took the case up and assigned it to the helper, to the day on which the case is definitely closed.*

"Case-papers" kept of persons relieved.

* The Committee were allowed to inspect a number of the case-paper histories at the Central Poor Law Office. The following rough notes of two cases selected at random, may prove of interest.

CASE A.

"Middle-aged woman; engaged in a fish establishment; separated from her husband in 1896; divorced for adultery in 1898. Has a son in the Army, aged twenty. Had a child to another man; husband said he was not the father of the child; he got a declaration that the child was not his; the child, therefore, took the name of the mother (maiden name). Father of the child came before the Committee and admitted his liability, agreed to a quarterly payment of 19s., March, 1908; woman got relief because she was unemployed. Then the helper finds out that the woman is working (was told by the woman herself), May, 1908; relief stopped. The helper gave her notice she must now maintain her own child. This is a non-settled case; the Poor Law authorities in place of settlement refund the money."

CASE B.

"Woman, at one time a domestic servant.
 "December 10th, 1902 (first entry); applies for assistance for her illegitimate child, which is boarded out at a cost of 20s. per month. Relief granted, 10s. per month, which is ratified by District Committee.
 "January, 1907; relief is raised to 16s., because woman again is pregnant.
 "February 19th, 1907; child born, in a lying-in hospital; relief raised to 35s. per month when she came out. Afterwards reduced to 25s., when she began to work.
 "Subsequently married a man who was not the father of either of the children, and he applies for assistance in the maintenance of the children; he would prefer them being sent to the Municipal Orphanage.
 "Case not yet decided; the District Committee (according to the opinion expressed to this Committee by the Secretary of the Central Poor Law Office) will probably not do this, but may make a small allowance.
 "The putative father of the children was prosecuted, but the action failed.
 "The children take the settlement of the stepfather; he cannot be made to support the children, there being no blood relationship.
 "The Poor Office learnt of the marriage of the woman through the police. Whenever a single woman is relieved, the police are notified, the police in return report to the Central Poor Law Office if the woman gets married."

THE "HELPER."

Election of
helpers.

The "helper" is so noteworthy a feature of the Hamburg Poor Law system, that a few additional remarks in relation to this "honorary official" may be proper in this place. That so large a number of persons (1,500) should be found willing to undertake the onerous duties assigned to the helper, and that in the absence of any sort of legal compulsion making it obligatory on any man to accept this office, can scarcely fail to evoke surprise. Yet the Committee were informed that refusals to serve in this capacity are rare, and where they occur the reason in most cases is that the gentleman in question is already overburdened with public duties of a similar honorary nature. It is true that, by way of precaution, it is usual not to ask a man beforehand if he will serve, but to inform him of his appointment only after it has taken place. But the supply of men who, when appointed, consent to act as helpers has hitherto not run short, nor is any fear entertained that it ever will. What is perhaps not less astonishing is that once elected, helpers, after their first four-year term has expired, are found willing to allow themselves to be re-elected and that there are some men whose total period of service is as much as twenty-five years. It should be remarked that, as the Committee were informed, should a helper neglect his duties, he finds the number of cases assigned to him gradually drop off, and is ultimately boycotted into resignation.

Inauguration of
new Poor Law
system.

By way of partial explanation of what appeared to the Committee to constitute a somewhat remarkable social phenomenon, the officials of the Central Poor Law Office observed that the new Poor Law system at Hamburg was inaugurated on May 1st, 1893, and that in 1892 Hamburg had suffered from a visitation of cholera, which called forth among its citizens a strong social feeling. It is true that the new system had been planned out before this visitation; but since its actual introduction did not take place until 1893, it was able to annex, as it were, to itself the sentiment of social solidarity called forth in the previous year by the common misfortunes of the Hamburg citizens during the cholera epidemic.

Duties of helper.

Burdensome, however, as is the task which is imposed upon the 1,500 helpers of Hamburg and upon the chairmen of the 121 Poor Law districts into which the city is divided, there can be no question that, so far as possible, every effort is made to make the performance of their duties as little difficult as possible. As a rule, to which, however, as will no doubt have been remarked, it is not always found possible strictly to adhere,* no helper is expected to look after more than six cases. Then, again, the assistance rendered to both chairmen and helpers by the Central Poor Law Office is (as will have been seen from the account of its operations given in preceding pages) extremely valuable. All the same, the fact that so many men—most of them men with professions to follow and business affairs to attend to—should be found ready and willing to carry out the duties assigned to these honorary officers of the Poor Law, and to carry out these duties to the satisfaction of their fellow-citizens, is one which must unquestionably be considered to redound in a high degree to the credit of the Hamburg community.

Efficiency and
training of
helpers.

How far it is in practice found possible to secure the maintenance among the helpers and the chairmen of the District Committees of a high standard of competence in relation to the work assigned to them is a question which could perhaps scarcely be satisfactorily answered save after an examination of the facts more searching and of wider range than could possibly be carried out by this Committee in the week which they spent at Hamburg. Certainly the absence of any systematic instruction in relation to those by whom this difficult work is carried on must affect the efficiency of the workers. They are, indeed, by no means left without guidance. In the first place they have at their disposal a handbook of about 100 pages, written by the Secretary of the Central Poor Law Office expressly for the use of guardians, and which appears admirably adapted to enable any person taking up this office readily to familiarise himself with the duties assigned to him. In the next

* The Hamburg system is based on the assumption that the number of cases to be looked after in each district by the fifteen guardians of that area will be ninety; but, as has been stated by the Director of the Central Poor Law Office, "We have districts with 100 to 170 cases, and the number of cases in which keeps on increasing, while other districts have only from twenty-nine to forty-five cases. In districts of the former class, the tendency must be for the thoroughness of the work done by the helpers to be impaired, while in districts of the latter class it is difficult—there not being enough for the helpers to do—for their interest in their work to be maintained" (*Blätter für das Hamburgische Armenwesen*, February, 1908, p. 13).

place, it is the duty of the district chairman to give advice to the helpers working under him whenever such advice would appear to be useful. In the last place, when in doubt or difficulty the helper can always obtain the counsel of the experienced officials at the Central Poor Law Office.

The secretary of that office informed this Committee that the attempt had been made to give the helpers the benefit of systematic training in the principles of Poor Law relief, but that this attempt had proved unsuccessful because it was found that the helpers had not sufficient leisure at their disposal to follow any course of teaching of this nature. He added that, for his own part, the present method of guiding the work of the helpers appeared to him to be satisfactory and sufficient.

Asked specifically, whether, in point of fact, the helpers achieve in regard to the moral elevation of the poor and the rehabilitation of those who, to a greater or less extent, display inability to lead a self-supporting life, any substantial degree of success, the Secretary replied that in many cases no results in this direction were achieved by the work of the helpers. Nevertheless, on the whole, the results obtained under the Hamburg system of Poor Law administration appeared to him to be satisfactory, regard being had to the low class of person with which the helpers and other officers of the Poor Law had to deal. As appeared evident to this Committee, any expectation that any but the most inconsiderable fraction of the great mass of applicants for relief dealt with by the Hamburg Poor Law authorities could be so dealt with by them as to create in these people habits of social and economic independence, was an idea altogether absent from the mind of the Secretary of the Central Poor Law Office.

Degree of moral success achieved by the helpers.

It is now time to speak of the functions assigned to the Poor Law doctor, who, as we have seen, is present in a consultative capacity at every meeting of a District Committee, and to set forth, as briefly as may be, the information which, at the close of the meeting described above, was given to this Committee by the doctor, who had been in attendance during the proceedings.

Duties of Poor Law doctor.

The assistance rendered to the District Committees by the Poor Law doctors, of whom there are at Hamburg fifty-two (elected by the Central Poor Law Council for three years), and who receive a salary of £62 10s. a year, being allowed to combine private practice with the performance of their duties as officers of the Poor Law administration, is very considerable. Thus, whenever it is necessary to determine whether and to what extent an applicant for relief is incapable of working, the opinion of the official doctor is at once obtained, and similarly, where the applicant asks for relief on the ground that he or any member of his family suffers from sickness, the matter is forthwith referred to the Poor Law doctor for examination and report.

With respect to the former of these two questions—the degree of working capacity possessed by applicants for relief—this doctor gave it as his definite opinion, that, while he could not estimate, even approximately, the proportion of cases passing through his hands, in which the applicants for relief were able-bodied, “almost none of the applicants are *fully* able-bodied.”

Except in cases of sudden and urgent illness (which the doctor stated to be by no means common, and which he attends in an unofficial capacity), he attends no case without having first received a note from the helper in charge of the case.

When the doctor has occasion to order the patient to take medicine, he gives him the prescription, which (since all the Hamburg chemists are under contract with the Poor Law authorities) he can get made up at any chemist's shop. The supply of medicines under these agreements is subject to the control of the Central Poor Law Office. Asked whether they were satisfied of the efficiency of this control, both the Poor Law doctor and the Secretary of the Central Poor Law Office (who took part in the conversation) gave affirmative replies.

Medicines under control of Central Poor Office.

When it is necessary for a man to be sent to an institution (*e.g.*, a Municipal Hospital), the practice is, that the man shall go first to the helper and obtain from him an order, which he takes to the doctor, who then certifies for the man's admission; but it is within the power of the doctor to send the man to the hospital, etc., without waiting to get an order from the helper, to whom, however, he notifies the action which he has taken.

Rules of admission to institutions.

Relief in
child-birth.

In cases of child-birth, if the woman is already in receipt of a continuing allowance, she is *ipso facto* entitled to receive from the helper in charge of the case an order for medical and obstetrical attention ; if not, she must go to the chairman of the District Committee, who sends a helper to investigate the case, before an order is given. Not only in suitable cases are the Poor Law doctor and the Poor Law midwife at the disposal of the Hamburg poor, but they can also command the services (paid for by the Poor Law or by a Charitable Society founded at Hamburg in 1899 for this purpose) of an experienced helper, who keeps in order the house of the woman brought to bed, and attends to her household duties generally.

With respect to medical extras, such as milk, spirits, etc., the doctor is allowed to order what he considers requisite—without any specified limit.

In the case of milk, *e.g.*, a fifteen-day order is signed by the doctor, and taken to the chairman of the District Committee, who then signs an order on a milk-shop for this supply.

Other extras, such as cocoa, children's food, emulsion, sanatogen, etc., are ordered from a chemist.

Medical relief
only.

Asked if there were many cases in which medical relief was the only form of relief given (no assistance in money or kind being granted), the doctor stated that such cases were of frequent occurrence. The applicants in these cases are counted as having received relief ; no separate statistics of the number of such persons, however, exist ; they are not included in the official statistics of the number of persons receiving Poor Law relief.

Admission to
hospital.

The doctor sends patients at his discretion either to a Municipal Hospital or to any private hospital with which the Poor Law Office has an agreement ; in the latter case the Central Poor Law Office pays the private hospital for taking over the patient. His order ensures immediate admission, whether to a Municipal or to any such private hospital. Nearly all the Hamburg hospitals maintained by private charity have entered into agreements of the nature referred to.

Sanitary Inspec-
tion.

With regard to sanitary inspection, this is under the control of the Board for the Supervision of Dwellings, whose duty it is to see that the provisions of the Provincial law in relation to the sanitation of houses are duly carried out, and which has for this purpose a staff of four or five medical officers. It is not, the doctor stated, the practice to assign to each of these officers a separate part of the city ; they between them inspect the whole of Hamburg.

Medical men are not bound by law to report sanitary defects which they may come across, and do not in fact do so ; but as the Secretary of the Central Poor Law Office stated, that office notifies to the sanitary authorities any insanitary conditions which the guardians may observe when visiting the poor. The Hamburg doctors have to make a weekly return of infectious disease (in regard to puerperal cases the return must be made within twenty-four hours).

Measles are notifiable, but not tuberculosis.

Except in relation to infectious diseases, the Poor Law doctors have no relations with the sanitary authorities.

No health visitors
employed.

There are no societies for supervising the general health conditions present in the houses of the people at Hamburg. There are, however, two societies for the prevention of tuberculosis. These societies, which are connected with the organisation under the Sickness Insurance Law, have health visitors whom they employ to visit people in their homes, and to instruct them what precautions should be taken in order to prevent the spread of tuberculous disease. These visitors, called " sick sisters," are salaried officers. The Central Poor Law Office also has a branch specially dealing with tuberculosis, but does not employ health visitors.

Each Poor Law doctor receives 20s. per annum (in addition to his salary) for every tuberculous case* which he attends.

Duties of Divi-
sional Council.

Passing now from the District Committee and the chairman and helpers of whom its membership is composed, and the Poor Law doctor, whose advice is at their constant service, to the Divisional Council, we find that this body is entrusted with the duty of

* If there is more than one tuberculous patient in a family, this nevertheless counts as " one case."

sanctioning, if it shall think fit, any expenditure in relief by the District Committees in excess of the maximum permitted by the regulations, and also certain classes of relief (*e.g.*, payment of back rent, see *ante*, p. 29) only permissible with the leave of the Divisional Council, and in addition (as above noted) with the duty of granting indoor relief of all kinds. In this connection it may be observed that in cases of a "sudden and urgent" character, it is not necessary to await the next monthly meeting of the Divisional Council, for in such cases the chairman of the District Committee reports the matter to the president of the Divisional Council, who has authority to take immediate action, subject to confirmation at the next meeting of the council. A Poor Law doctor can also send cases to hospitals, etc., without awaiting the sanction of the Divisional Council.

CHARITABLE INFORMATION BUREAU.

It has already been explained (*ante*, pp. 25, 26) that, whenever a case comes before the officials at the Central Poor Office, it is their duty to ascertain what assistance (if any) of a charitable nature the applicant for Poor Law relief may be receiving, and that this investigation is based upon the reports made by a special information bureau, which (as stated above) is carried on, independently indeed of the Poor Law administration, but in offices immediately adjoining those occupied by the staff of the Central Poor Law Office. This bureau is maintained in connection with the arrangements for the official supervision, which the Hamburg legislation has authorised that City-State to exercise over the whole of the philanthropic institutions of every kind established within the municipal area.

Among the various duties, which the Poor Law Act above referred to (*ante*, p. 23) assigns to the Central Poor Law Council, is "the supervision of charitable institutions according to the provisions of the special statute in relation thereto" (this statute being an Act passed at the same date—September 11th, 1907—as the Poor Law Act); and in order to carry out these duties a Board of Supervision is established, as a Committee of the Central Poor Law Council, which consists of a representative of the Hamburg Senate, who is chairman of the Board, and six members of the Lower House, selected each year by the Central Council from among the members of that body. The powers of this Board, which include the audit of accounts* and criticism of expenditure, are exerciseable in relation to all charities which have received formal recognition by the Hamburg authorities and enjoy the legal rights which such recognition confers (*e.g.*, the right to acquire property, to sue at law, etc.).

It is part of the functions assigned by the law to this Board of Supervision to maintain the information bureau already mentioned, which was established in 1895, "with the object of collecting particulars with respect to such persons as may receive relief from public monies, from institutions, or from private individuals, and in order, by means of the particulars thus collected, to supply information at the request of public officials, and charitable societies or institutions, and also of private individuals, in so far as such information can, in the opinion of the officials administering the law be supplied consistently with the promotion of the interests of charity."†

The Committee were informed that about 700 charitable bodies send annually ‡ to this bureau not only abstracts of their accounts, but also the number of persons relieved by them, and a list of such persons and of the amount of the relief given to each. Further, every charitable society and institution in Hamburg, when applied to by the bureau, informs it at once of any assistance which it may have given to any particular applicant. In the same way the bureau obtains from the Central Poor Law Office full particulars as to any Poor Law relief that may have been granted in the case, and from the police all necessary details with regard to the antecedents of any applicant for assistance who may form the subject of investigation. In this manner the bureau is enabled to keep

* It is worthy of note that (as the Committee were informed) the charities send the figures to the Board with great punctuality, and the power to fine a charity for not complying with the law is exercised very rarely indeed. The practice of the Board is to ask for vouchers only for the expenditure on *relief* (which forms the great bulk of the total); as to income, vouchers are not necessary since the Board has full particulars of the investments of each charity and of the rate of interest which these bear.

† The last words in this paragraph are aimed at keeping the bureau officials free from any duty to supply information where they think that the inquiry is made from motives of personal spite, etc.

‡ It was stated that if a charitable body should give a large sum, as, for example, in order to send a poor youth to an university, or to pay a sum owing for unpaid rent, this charity would notify the Information Bureau of this fact at once (and not wait to send it until the close of the year).

a fairly complete card register of all the persons who receive relief or assistance, and of their character and history, and is thus placed in a favourable position for answering with all needful particularity inquiries addressed to it on this subject.

Investigation.

In order, however, still further to perfect its information with respect to applicants for relief (the necessity for which arises especially in those instances in which applications to the Poor Law officials, to those of the various charities, and to the police have failed to elicit the particulars required, this Information Bureau makes, when occasion arises, special inquiries into the circumstances affecting cases as to which it is asked to supply information, and for this purpose has at its disposal the services not only of its own staff, four or five of the best educated of whom devote themselves regularly to making with all requisite tact investigations of this nature, but also of some ten voluntary investigators (some men, some women); these are persons of means and leisure, who are good enough to undertake this work, who (except for seasonal absence from Hamburg in the summer months) can at all times be relied upon to make with punctuality and despatch the inquiries assigned to them, and who deal in this manner with nearly 900 cases a year.

Indeed, it is these honorary visitors, as a rule, rather than the salaried staff of the bureau, to whom special investigations of the nature here referred to are entrusted.

It should be added that in cases, in which special inquiries are made by the investigators (honorary or salaried) of the bureau, it is the practice to include in the report furnished by the bureau whatever recommendation as to the course which it seems advisable to pursue may be made by the person, by whom the necessary investigation was carried out. On being asked to give an example of the kind of recommendations which an investigator of the Information Bureau might be expected to make, the director of this office gave as an instance a case in which a poor man had asked for money with which to pay rent owing by him. If the investigator is of opinion that compliance with this man's request will be really useful, he will advise that it be granted. But if he thinks that such compliance would not be really helpful, or that, if the money is given, it is likely that it will be applied to some other purpose than the payment of this rent, or that the man's application is the result of collusion between him and his landlord, then the investigator will recommend that the man's request be refused.

Nature of advice given by investigators.

In order to ascertain more fully the nature of the advice given to charitably disposed persons by the investigators of the Information Bureau, a number of hypothetical cases were put to the director of that office. Thus, in the first case, the director was asked what advice would be given if the cause of the non-payment of the man's rent was, not that his earnings were insufficient, but that these earnings were spent in an uneconomical and unthrifty manner. "What course would an investigator under such circumstances as these recommend to be taken with the object of changing the man's shiftless and unthrifty habits?" He replied that it was not easy to give a general answer, since circumstances differ in different cases. He himself had never met with a case like that here supposed. In his opinion their investigator would simply advise that the man's request for money with which to pay his rent should not be granted; here his duty ended.

In (hypothetical) case No. 2, the director was asked to suppose circumstances similar to those last described, except that the cause of the non-payment of the rent is that the husband (age, say, thirty years, able-bodied) is of drinking habits. "What advice would be given here?" The answer was that probably the recommendation would be that some help should be given towards payment of the rent; but the character of the recommendation made, would depend on the idiosyncracies of the investigator who might take the view that this request is sure to be repeated again and again, and that, if, say, the 20s. now asked for be granted, this will not save the family from drifting into dependence; if so, he would advise non-compliance with the request.

Number of applicants for assistance advised as to by the Bureau.

The co-operation of the Information Bureau is sought by all the more important among the charitable societies and institutions of Hamburg and by a certain number (which tends to increase) of charitable individuals—in all cases (it should be understood) voluntarily, for no one is under any sort of legal compulsion to consult the bureau. In this manner it is stated that a great deal has been accomplished in the way of preventing "overlapping" between philanthropy and the

Poor Law,* and between different charitable bodies and individuals who through the assistance rendered to them by the Information Bureau are now enabled to avoid giving relief to the same applicant while each is ignorant what the other is doing. The extent of the bureau's activity may be judged from the fact that the total number of applicants for assistance referred to in the inquiries addressed to and answered by the bureau in the course of 1907 was not less than 23,979 (as against 3,630 in 1895) of whom 5,029 were persons about whom the inquiries were made by public officials, 13,260 by charitable societies or institutions, and 5,690 by private individuals.

With respect to the applicants for assistance whose cases were reported on by the Information Bureau, it may perhaps be of interest to observe that in only 2,753 cases were these applicants previously unknown to and not referred to in any of the particulars collected by the bureau; while out of the total of 23,979 applicants, 8,222 are classed as having been reported upon for the first time, 2,757 for the second, and 1,841 for the third time, while 11,159 are classed as having been reported upon on more than three distinct occasions.

The director of the Charitable Information Bureau was questioned by this Committee with respect to the amount of co-operation existing (apart from the supply and receipt of information) between his office and the various philanthropic agencies of Hamburg, and also between these agencies *inter se*. Co-operation with philanthropic agencies. "Would the bureau, for example, in the case of a drunkard husband, take any action to bring one of the temperance societies (which the director told the Committee were in existence at Hamburg) into relation with this man?" His answer was: "In principle, no; but such action is occasionally taken by an honorary investigator, not as part of his or her official duties, but in an unofficial capacity."

Being asked whether the Hamburg clergy made use of this bureau in connection with their philanthropic labours, the director replied: "Yes; very extensive use of the bureau is made by the clergy." Bureau largely used by clergy.

As to co-operation between the Poor Law authorities and the various charities, the director was asked to consider the hypothetical instance of a family consisting of:— Co-operation between Poor Law and charities

(1) A widowed mother, whose state of health was such, that this woman required treatment in the Municipal Hospital.

(2) A child, who ought to be apprenticed to a master in some trade.

(3) Another child, whose state of health was such that the child ought to be sent for a time to live in country air, but who required no other treatment; and

(4) A child suffering from tuberculosis.

In such a case this bureau would, as has been seen, act as a means of informing each relief agency concerned in the case of what every other such agency was doing; but, "further than this, is there (the director was asked) any other organisation of any kind creating a co-operative *nexus* between these different agencies?" His answer was as follows: "In such a case, the person who had applied to the bureau for information respecting the case would be given the name and address of the several agencies appropriate to deal with each member of this distressed family, and this, whether relations existed between any such agency and the bureau or not; this being done, the duty of the bureau goes no further; and the person, to whom this information had been supplied, would, of his own motion, make the necessary applications to the the various agencies in question."

Asked if the question of closer association between the different charities in their philanthropic work had, in recent years, been considered at Hamburg, the director of the bureau replied in the affirmative, adding, that the officials of the different institutions had had conferences on this subject, but the results secured by these meetings did not entirely fulfil the hopes entertained. Some four years ago (he said) this bureau raised the question of the possible co-ordination of the various societies formed for the purpose of granting poor people assistance towards paying rent due from them (*see note † at p. 29, ante*); this question was discussed at a conference, at which it was proposed to form a central bureau for this purpose; but the societies concerned preferred to retain their independence. This (he stated) was the only case in any branch of charitable work, in which an actual attempt to bring about co-operation between charities had been made at Hamburg.

* In the rules of many of the more recently organised of the Hamburg philanthropic institutions, it is expressly provided that no persons already in receipt of Poor Law relief shall be assisted by the institution; in other cases, it rests with the Executive Committee in each case to decide to what extent this kind of duplication shall be avoided.

THE HOMELESS POOR.

Classes of
"homeless poor."

Under the Hamburg Poor Law system the "homeless poor" are divided into two classes :—

(A).—Persons, who at no time have had a settlement in Hamburg.

(B).—Persons who, before they became homeless, had such a settlement.

With regard to Class A., the Poor Law regulations provide, that such persons "are to be handed over to the police, upon whom rests the responsibility for providing for the needs of these individuals." This provision consists in putting these people under "protective arrest" (*i.e.*, detention in their own interests) for one or more days, and ultimately compelling them either to provide themselves with lodgings, to go into one of the three Travellers' Homes at Hamburg (shelters for workmen "on tramp") or into the Town Labour Colony (see *post*, pp. 54–56), or else to quit the town (for which purpose shoes are supplied to the men, if their own are too worn out for use on the road). Sick tramps, however, are sent by the police, by arrangement in each case with the Central Poor Law Office, to the workhouse (see *post*, p. 43).

So far as concerns Class B., the regulations provide, that, since such persons cannot be considered as residing in any one of the Poor Law districts, they "must, if they merely require a temporary shelter for a few nights only, be referred to the police, at any rate so far as it shall not be found possible to accommodate them in one or other of the "shelters for the homeless" (of which there are at Hamburg two, one for men, the other for women). "For the rest, the needs of these people, until they have found a new home, have to be provided for by the Central Poor Law Office, which, when the people have in view a suitable dwelling, has power to grant them the means of obtaining such accommodation. After that, any further relief that they may require must be granted by the Poor Law district within whose area their new home is situated."†

EXPENDITURE.

Total expenditure
on outdoor relief.

The various forms of, and the circumstances under which relief (other than institutional treatment) is granted under the Hamburg Poor Law system, having now been described, it remains only to state that the total expenditure on outdoor relief* at Hamburg has in recent years been as below :—

	£
In 1901 - - -	95,310
„ 1902 - - -	96,957
„ 1903 - - -	99,811
„ 1904 - - -	99,321
„ 1905 - - -	98,100
„ 1906 - - -	96,453
„ 1907 - - -	94,457

It will be seen that in 1907, which is stated by the Hamburg officials to have been, on the whole, "a specially prosperous year," the amount expended in outdoor relief† was smaller than the amount expended in 1901 (a period of relative depression in German industry) by less than £1,000, but shows a considerable decrease when compared with the figures for the other years referred to.

The amount expended in Poor Law relief† in each of the under-mentioned

Amount expended
in "Cash Relief."

* With respect to the duty of providing for the temporary accommodation of the homeless poor, which falls upon the Central Poor Law Office, the authorities have at their disposal for this purpose the Hamburg Poorhouse (see *post*, pp. 42–45).

† *I.e.*, cash relief. In addition to cash relief, the Hamburg Poor Law authorities gave, in 1907, medicines and medical comforts to the total value of £4,929, exclusive of sterilised milk for infants to the value of £170. They also gave clothing made in workshops managed by various associations of charitable ladies (who select for employment poor persons who would otherwise "come on the Poor Law"), the cost of production of which was £2,759 (£2,037 for materials, £722 for wages), and also other clothing and furniture presented to the Central Poor Law Office by charitable persons for distribution, to the total value of £2,869. They also gave to persons on tramp boots to the value of £28. The expense of the funerals of the 314 persons (including 185 infants under twelve months old) who, in the course of 1907 were buried at the cost of the Poor Law, was £271.

years was, on the average per case as to the continuing allowances and per grant as to the one-time grants, as shown below :—

Year.	Average Amount of Continuing Allowances in 1907.			Average Amount of One-time Grants in 1907.
	£.	s.	d.	s. d.
1901 - - - -	10	13	5	14·3
1902 - - - -	10	9	6	17·10
1903 - - - -	10	8	7	14·0
1904 - - - -	10	8	1	13·10
1905 - - - -	10	8	6	15·5
1906 - - - -	10	9	7	15·10
1907 - - - -	10	11	7	15·5

With regard to the one-time grants, it is worthy of remark that, although, as between 1907 and the immediately preceding years the average amount per grant has fallen but very slightly, the number of these grants made in each year shows a really considerable diminution, the figures being :—1901, 2,419 ; 1902, 2,516 ; 1903, 2,732 ; 1904, 2,347 ; 1905, 2,214 ; 1906, 1,915 ; and 1907, 1,871.

With respect to the numbers of the poor at Hamburg and the proportion which they bear to the population of that city, it is, of course, very difficult to arrive at any conclusion from such statistics as relate to “one-time” grants, since one and the same recipient counts as one “case” on every separate occasion (within the same year) in which he may receive such assistance.

If, however, we follow the practice of the Poor Law statisticians at Hamburg who, in showing the fluctuations in the numbers of the poor, confine themselves to the figures with regard to the “continuing” allowances, then accepting the estimate made in the statistics published by the Hamburg authorities as to the number of different persons comprised in one “case” (the unit of their relief statistics *) we get in relation to the last decade, the following figures :—

Year.	Number (monthly average) of persons in receipt of continuing allowances.	Proportion borne by the number of persons referred to in column 2 to the number of the total population.
(1)	(2)	(3)
		Per 1,000.
1898 - - - -	19,695	29·5
1899 - - - -	19,390	28·4
1900 - - - -	18,764	28·0
1901 - - - -	17,952	25·1
1902 - - - -	18,494	25·4
1903 - - - -	19,096	25·7
1904 - - - -	19,103	25·0
1905 - - - -	18,795	23·8
1906 - - - -	18,136	22·3
1907 - - - -	17,612	20·9

It will be seen that the ratio between the number of the poor at Hamburg, and that of the total population of this city has in the last ten years steadily decreased, this proportion having fallen from 29·5 per 1,000 to 1898 to 20·9 per 1,000 in 1907.

* Basing their estimate on investigations made in census years, the Hamburg authorities, in the relief statistics published by them, have taken the number of different individuals (including children under sixteen years of age), comprised as one “case,” as being up to and in 1900, 2·12 ; from 1901 to 1905 (inclusive), 2·04 ; and from 1906 to 1907 (inclusive) 2·01. The Hamburg Poor Law officials stated that the German official statisticians deprecate any attempt being made to make a “total poor” figure, an attempt which, in their opinion, invincible statistical difficulties render a task impossible of achievement.

THE "SPECIAL FUND."

Object of fund.

It remains to add, that, with the special object of decreasing poverty (as apart from merely relieving the necessities of the poor), the City of Hamburg has at its disposal a Special Fund, which, originally established in 1878, was reconstituted in 1898 for this express purpose, the interest on the investments comprised in this fund (whose capital value is approximately £75,000), together with any gifts, which may be made to it by charitable societies or individuals, being available for, and expressly and exclusively devoted to the purpose of "preventive charity."

Administration of fund.

The grants made out of this fund, which is administered by a Committee of the Central Poor Law Council, consisting of the President of that Council, as Chairman, the Finance Member of that Council (see *ante*, p. 23), two other members of the Council, and the President of the Divisional Council concerned (*i.e.*, in whose area the applicant resides), are of two classes. The principal class consists of "one-time" grants made in favour of such persons as are considered likely, if assisted in this manner (by grants of substantial amount, if need be), to provide for their needs in future by their own independent exertions, without having to become a burden on the Poor Law. The second class consists of grants made with the object of preventing disease.

Co-operation with Hamburg charities.

In carrying out its work the Special Fund is helped by the co-operation of a certain number of Hamburg charities. Thus, in 1907, the Gaiser Foundation (an endowed charity with a capital of £50,000) in fifty-three cases, which, after having been indicated to it by the authorities administering the Special Fund as deserving of assistance, were then independently investigated by this charity, contributed total sums amounting to £284; and in a certain number of cases, of a nature making such joint action possible and advisable, two of the Hamburg Rent Assistance Societies (see note † at p. 29, *ante*) also co-operated with the Special Fund.

Number of "one-time" grants.

With respect to cases of the first class above referred to, the Special Fund made in 1907, 351 grants (in 225 cases by way of gift, in 46 partly by way of gift, and partly by way of loan and in 80 cases by way of loan) to the total amount of £2,177, of which £620 was granted (in addition to £51 out of an endowment which is administered by the Fund) for the purpose of paying debts owing for rent.

Number of grants for sick persons.

The cases of the second class dealt with by the Special Fund in 1907 were 1,352 in number, the great majority of which (1,057) were cases in which the Fund granted the means of purchasing strengthening food, etc., for convalescent children; in 178 cases children were sent away for country holidays, in 82, to convalescent homes, in 35 cases phthisical and other patients were sent to health resorts, etc. The total amount expended on the 1,352 cases here referred to in 1907 was £805.

The receipt of grants made by the Special Fund does not count as the receipt of Poor Law relief, and while the receipt of ordinary (non-medical) Poor Law relief exposes the recipients to the loss of their franchise rights, the fact that a man is assisted out of the Special Fund does not entail his disfranchisement.

THE POORHOUSE.

Accommodation, and number of inmates.

The "work-and-poor-house" of the State of Hamburg is an institution capable of accommodating 2,003 persons (941 males and 666 females in the principal, 320 males and 76 females in the branch establishment). At the date (August 17th, 1908) of the Committee's visit the number of the inmates was: In the principal establishment, 850 males and 546 females; in the branch, 311 males and 74 females; in all, 1,781. In addition, 61 males and 69 females were boarded out by this institution with families living in the suburbs of Hamburg.*

Admission to poorhouse.

All admissions to the poorhouse take place on the initiative and at the absolute discretion of the Central Poor Law Office, acting with the sanction of the Divisional Councils. Any inmate (except a person incompetent to manage his own affairs†)

* It should be understood that these are *adults*, some of whom contribute to the cost of their maintenance by their earnings.

† Persons under the guardianship of a legally appointed curator, *e.g.*, idiots, lunatics, or inebriates. Since 1900, it is provided by the Hamburg law, that an inebriate, who is unable to look after his own affairs, or whose condition is such as to expose himself or his family to the risk of distress, or endangers the safety of others, shall be placed under the care of a guardian, who has the right to get the drunkard sent to a home for inebriates. When a man is in this manner placed under a guardian, his wife is treated by the Poor Law as a widow, while his children are placed under guardianship (see *post*, p. 49), and if they are in need of relief their guardian applies for it to the Central Poor Law Office.

can discharge himself at any time, and any inmate who, in the opinion of the director of the house, is now fit to earn his own living outside, may at any time be compulsorily discharged.

This poorhouse is officially described as intended "to provide accommodation for such persons as may be handed over to it by the Central Poor Law Office as being unsuited to be relieved by outdoor relief," and also, by way of exception only, for persons whose maintenance in the institution shall be paid for. In the main, therefore, this poorhouse forms an intrinsic part of the Hamburg Poor Law system, and as such the cost of maintaining it is defrayed, in the same manner as other forms of Poor Law relief, out of the taxes raised by the Municipality.

The management of the poorhouse is entrusted to a special committee appointed by the Central Poor Law Council and composed of one member of the Hamburg Senate, who acts as its chairman, and four members of the Lower House, which holds monthly meetings, (the director of the poorhouse attending in a consultative capacity), and which makes each year two official inspections of the institution.

In the main, the inmates of the poorhouse are people no longer in their prime, and many are well on in years. Thus, out of 523 males admitted in 1907, 109 were aged forty-one up to fifty years; of these it should be observed no fewer than 54 were admitted for the first time. As to these 54 men the chief director of the poorhouse, on being asked what reason was to be assigned for these men being driven to enter the house, replied: "Destitution." Of the other men admitted in 1907 as many as 152 were aged fifty-one up to sixty years; 134 sixty-one up to seventy years; 43 seventy-one up to eighty years; and 8 were aged eighty-one up to ninety years; while of the total number of 277 females admitted in 1907, 30 were aged forty-one up to fifty years; 27 fifty-one up to sixty years; 44 sixty-one up to seventy years; 55 seventy-one up to eighty years; no less than 25 were aged eighty-one up to ninety years; and 1 was over ninety years of age. On the other hand it is to be observed in relation to the female inmates that these include a certain number of young women (girls under twenty-one) who, at the request of their parents or guardians, and because they have been guilty of loose conduct or displayed an unconquerable aversion to work, are received at this house with a view to their reformation; of these, there were admitted in 1907, 65 (included in the above total of 277 female admissions).

That a very large number of the inmates were in ill-health is shown by the following figures. The number of persons under medical treatment in the course of 1907 is stated in the Annual Report for that year to have been:

(a) In the five infirmary wards, 267 men (with an aggregate of 10,975 days of treatment), and 255 women (with 10,619 days); and

(b) In Section I. (persons confined to bed and permanently incapacitated from working), 363 men and 381 women; in Section II. (persons not confined to bed, but unfit to perform any kind of work), 222 men and 236 women; in Section III. (persons of less than normal vigour, but still able to do some work), 161 men and 106 women; and in Section VI. (persons fit to perform labour, receiving ambulatory treatment), 427 men and 95 women.

Besides old and sick people there are included among the inmates a certain number of the homeless poor, whom the Central Poor Law Office, usually acting on reports from the police, sends to this poorhouse (see *ante*, p. 40). In the same manner the Poor Law Office sends to the poorhouse "such dissolute, and work-shy persons, persons who have undergone numerous convictions, and habitual drunkards, for whom indoor relief appears to be the appropriate form of relief." Idiots and epileptics are also sent to the poorhouse in some cases, but when it is not possible for them to be received in that institution, such persons are sent to an asylum (a private institution) at Alsterdorf.

On one matter of some importance—the amount of recidivism prevailing among the occupants of the Hamburg poorhouse—it is very difficult to obtain the data necessary to the formation of a definite conclusion. The officials were unable to furnish even an approximate estimate of the average duration of the inmates' stay in the poorhouse, nor would such a figure be very useful, since in some cases the inmates, whether owing to ill-health or to other causes, stay on for very long periods;

indeed (as the Committee were informed) some enter the institution at an early age and never leave it. But, speaking generally, the chief director observed, that the number of "ins-and-outs," (persons who, after a brief residence in the poorhouse, claim their right to be discharged only to re-enter the house again within a brief period for another short stay there, and so *da capo*), most of whom are young people, was certainly large. In this connection the statistics given in the Report of the poorhouse for 1907, although their utility for the present purpose is much impaired by the facts above mentioned, may still claim to possess a certain degree of interest. These statistics show that out of the 523 males admitted in 1907, no more than 275 entered the institution for the first time, and out of the 277 females admitted in that year only 223 (including 56 girls sent for reformation, as above described), while 81 males and 36 females (including 9 girls sent for reformation) became inmates of the establishment for the second time, 57 males and 5 females for the third, 36 males and 4 females for the fourth, 19 males and 5 females for the fifth, 19 males and 3 females for the sixth time, and no less than 36 males (but 1 female only) had, when admitted in 1907, been inmates of the poorhouse on six or more previous occasions.

As to what becomes of the ins-and-outs when they leave the poorhouse, the Committee were informed that in many cases they enter one or other of the labour colonies, but seldom going straight from the poorhouse into a colony. In some cases they get arrested by the police as vagrants and are sentenced to detention (up to two years) in a House of Correction.

Support of families of inmates.

When the head of a family is admitted into the poorhouse, his wife is also admitted if (and only if) she would, if left outside, be unable to support herself and her children; in the latter event, while the mother comes into this House, her children are sent to the Municipal Orphan Asylum (see *post*, pp. 49--52).

If a man is discharged, then his wife is also discharged if the man is considered capable of supporting her (and she can at any time discharge herself).

It is, however (as the Committee were informed), only in rare instances that married couples are admitted. At the time of the Committee's visit there were in the poorhouse, in all, only five or six such couples, these being aged and sick persons.

Inmates mostly not able-bodied.

Taken as a whole, the inmates who are really competent to do a fair day's work or anything like it, are an entirely insignificant fraction of the whole number; and (as has been explained) as soon as a man is seen to be fit to earn his living by his labour he is forthwith discharged. The more competent workman, when out of employment and homeless, goes into a labour colony.

Occupations of inmates.

Although so few are fit to do a fair day's work, all are set to such work as they are competent to perform. The principal establishment owns about 16 acres of land, and the branch about 370 acres, and agricultural and horticultural operations and dairy work are carried on by the labour of the inmates. With respect to industrial occupations, the inmates of the principal establishment are employed as carpenters and joiners, blacksmiths, locksmiths, tinsmiths, tailors, bootmakers, bakers, glaziers, painters, saddlers, upholsterers, and in sack-making, envelope-making, basket-making and oakum-picking. Most of this work is done to meet the requirements of the poorhouse itself, but one-third of the products of the bakery go to various other Municipal institutions and the destination of the envelopes and sacks made and the oakum picked at the poorhouse is the same.

Bonuses paid for work done.

In respect of the work done in this poor-house the inmates receive by way of bonus (and without their having any legal claim thereto) sums proportionate to the efficiency of their labour, but with the proviso that, if the inmate has already on a previous occasion been admitted to the House, and is admitted a second time through his own fault (decided by the Central Poor Law Office), then his bonus is reduced by 50 per cent., on a third admission by 75 per cent., and on subsequent admissions is altogether withdrawn. Subject to this proviso, an inmate during the first six weeks of his stay in the House gets 3d. a week, and after that his bonus begins at the rate of 1½d. a day, and, according to his efficiency, rises to about 4d. a day. These are the time-wage rates; in most branches of work the bonus is given on a piece-work basis, the earnings of different inmates varying very greatly—from 6d. a week up to a maximum of 2s. 6d. to 3s. a week. In the case of inmates who are unfit to do any work, or able only to do so little work that they find it impossible to earn as much as 3d. a week, these persons are given a present of 3d. a week, which they are at liberty to spend as they think fit.

One-half of the bonuses earned by the inmates of the house (but in no case more than 6d. a week) is paid over weekly in cash to the inmates, the remainder is credited to them in the books of the house and applied for their benefit. But if the accumulations of credited bonus exceed £3, then, as a rule, the inmate is allowed to receive the whole of his bonus in cash. With respect, however, to the aged inmates, it is provided by the rules of this establishment that when an inmate shall have reached the age of sixty-five, all his accumulated bonus in excess of £1 10s., and when he reaches the age of seventy, the whole of such accumulation, shall be applied in paying to the inmate (in addition to any bonus thereafter to be earned or any present payable to him) a sum of 2d. a week in cash until such accumulation shall be exhausted.

The house contains a canteen (at which no alcohol in any form is sold); and the greater part of the inmates' earnings is spent at this store.

In his first year the inmate of the Hamburg Poorhouse, if he behaves well, is allowed leave on every fourth Sunday (whole day), and also on two days at each of the three festivals of the year, and on the Saturday afternoon preceding each such festival. After that, he or she is allowed to go out on alternate Sundays (the men on one Sunday, the women on the other) as well as on feast days.

The Committee were informed that the inmates, when out on leave, spend most of their money on drink, and usually return showing signs of drink, many of them (more especially the men) being then in a definitely intoxicated condition. If an inmate on his return to the house is not merely intoxicated, but also disorderly, or so drunk as to be incapable of taking care of himself, he is confined in a cell until the following day, and his leave is stopped by way of punishment.

With respect to the infirmary arrangements at the Hamburg Poorhouse, it should be stated that the staff includes one principal and one assistant medical officer, both resident, two (male) hospital assistants, two nurses, and a dispenser. There are no probationer nurses. Some (but only a minority) of the ward-maids have had hospital experience before coming to this establishment.

In this connection it may be of interest to note that, when asked to state the reasons which accounted for the steady increase from year to year in the number of admissions to this poorhouse,* the chief director replied that in the main this increase (which as between 1890 and 1908 amounts to 70 per cent.) was accounted for by the growth of the population of Hamburg, but another reason might, perhaps, be found in the fact that the ordinary hospitals were too full.

It should be added that not only has the number of the inmates of the poorhouse shown an increase in recent years, but their cost of maintenance has gone up from 10³/₄d. per day in 1904 to 1s. 4d. per day in 1907, and this without any change having been made in the dietary scale of the establishment.

In conclusion, it should be remarked, that, while up to the present year no power of detention has (as explained above) been accorded to the authorities of this poorhouse, the position of the Hamburg Poor Law authorities in this respect has been materially altered by the provisions contained in the new law above referred to, and which came into force at the beginning of the present year. By virtue of this enactment in every case, in which any person, or his or her dependants, shall receive Poor Law relief, a Special Committee of the Central Poor Law Council is empowered, in so far as may be requisite for the purpose of removing or diminishing the need of assistance existing in relation to such persons, to exact from him or her the performance of such labour as shall correspond with the capacity for work of such individual.

* The number of the inmates of the Hamburg Poorhouse (not including persons boarded out by this establishment) on the first day of each of the years 1890-1908 was as below :—

1890	1,067	1895	1,389	1900	1,455	1905	1,664
1891	1,078	1896	1,454	1901	1,490	1906	1,744
1892	1,220	1897	1,390	1902	1,560	1907	1,762
1893	1,217	1898	1,421	1903	1,599	1908	1,777
1894	1,327	1899	1,433	1904	1,610		

This Special Committee is to consist of a chairman, who is to be one of the representatives on the Central Poor Law Council of the Hamburg Senate, and two of the representatives on that Council of the Lower House, together with two assessors, who are to be chairmen of District Committees or helpers, and at least one of whom must possess the qualifications necessary to entitle him to hold the office of judge. The members of the Committee are to be appointed by the Central Poor Law Council to serve for one year.

This Committee possesses the ordinary powers of a court of justice, having the right to send for witnesses and take sworn evidence. The defendant is allowed to appear by himself or by his solicitor. Any decision regarding the question of the defendant's obligation to perform labour requires a majority of four votes, and is subject to appeal, either to the Senate or before an ordinary tribunal.

When the Committee has decided that a man is, by virtue of the provisions of this law, under the obligation of performing labour, the duty of securing such performance rests with the Poor Law authority, by whom the relief given in the case was granted, such authority being entitled to receive from the police all such assistance as may be necessary for this purpose.

Period of compulsory labour.

In the case of any person who has been condemned to the performance of compulsory labour, such compulsion is to be brought to an end as soon as the grounds for the same shall have ceased to exist, or the authorities shall, in their discretion, decide that the continuance thereof is no longer necessary. The defendant is allowed to move the Committee at any time (not, however, sooner than three months after the decision in question) to determine the compulsion, which he was sentenced to undergo.

In any case, in which a defendant has been taken to a Poor Law compulsory labour house, and has there been detained for one year, he is at the expiration of such time to be released and given an opportunity of proving (to the satisfaction of the Committee) that the circumstances which formed the original grounds of his sentence no longer exist.

With respect to the defendant's earnings in respect of his labour while under compulsion, if any balance shall remain after defraying the cost of his maintenance, such balance is to be applied towards the support of the man's family, if any ; or if not, shall be paid over to him upon his discharge.

Probable success of system.

In an address which Dr. Lohse, the director of the Hamburg Poor Law Administration, delivered in January, 1908, he expressed his conviction that the provisions just summarised, constitute a necessary and practically useful amendment of the Hamburg Poor Law legislation. These provisions had, he considered, a special importance with reference to the manner in which the previously existing legislation, intended to compel the citizens to fulfil their natural and legal obligation to provide for the support of themselves and their dependants without recourse to the Poor Law, was administered. It was the practice of the judges in most cases, instead of sending a man to prison, as the law enabled them to do, to content themselves with imposing a money fine, paid in many cases by instalments, which the defendant in fact paid out of the allowances, which he received from the Poor Law. Dr. Lohse also stated his opinion, that, while it was too soon to form any sort of estimate of the number of persons who were likely, under this new legislation, to be sent to undergo detention and perform forced labour in the poorhouse (at the branch already referred to, which is outside Hamburg), it was probable, that, when men of the class with which they would have to deal, came before the Special Committee, it would in many cases occur, that the defendant voluntarily declared his readiness to do his best in future to support his family, and would often keep this promise, so that no necessity would arise for actually putting in force the power of compulsion conferred by the law.

THE MUNICIPAL HOSPITALS.

Institutional treatment of the sick.

The provision, which, under the Hamburg Poor Law system, is made for the sick poor in their own homes has already been described (*ante*, pp. 35, 36). Coming now to the institutional treatment of the sick at Hamburg, we find this provided for mainly by the two great municipal hospitals St. George (1,379 beds) and Eppendorf, (2,000 beds), and two very much smaller institutions of like character specially devoted to the needs of the harbour population, while a not very considerable number of Poor Law patients are, by arrangement, treated in private hospitals. Of the municipal hospitals the Committee were able within the time at their disposal to visit

jointly the first only, while the Eppendorf Hospital was inspected separately by one of its members. With respect to the information acquired by their Committee on the visit which they paid to the St. George Hospital, the following particulars may be of service.

The medical side of the arrangements at the St. George Hospital lies outside the province of the Committee, and, besides noting as matters of interest (a) that all the members of the medical staff are salaried officers of the institution, and (b) that the number of acute cases treated at this hospital was stated to be small, it will be enough to say that these arrangements appeared to the Committee to leave nothing to be desired.

So far as concerns the Poor Law side of the Municipal Hospitals, the details which follow were obtained by the Committee, in part from the officials of the Central Poor Law Office, in part from those of the St. George Hospital.

The manner, in which the Poor Law sends patients for treatment in the Hamburg Municipal Hospitals, has been described above (*ante*, pp. 35-37). In respect of these patients the Central Poor Law Office pays to the hospital the sum of 1s. 6d. per day, while the actual average cost* of the treatment of patients in this institution is a little over 4s. 1d. per day, a figure which does not include any allowance for rent (the hospital buildings are the property of the city), or for the cost of extensions and alterations, nor any charge in respect of the expenses of the out-patient department). The difference is made good out of the Municipal budget. As between these Poor Law patients and the other inmates of the hospital, no difference is made in treatment, and for the most part the medical officers do not know whether a patient has been admitted by the Poor Law authorities or has entered the institution in any other manner. The Poor Law patients are less luxuriously accommodated than those paying patients, in respect of whom much higher sums are paid, but in most respects are indistinguishable. In all cases the charge made by the hospital includes the cost of all operations which may be performed there. The total number of the persons sent by the Poor Law authorities who received treatment at the St. George Hospital in 1907 was 3,669.

Unless it is certain that the man possesses, or that relatives responsible for his support possess the means to pay for his treatment (in which case he is left to apply for admission in the ordinary manner),† the Central Poor Law Office sends all sick persons forthwith to the hospital, and then, if any doubt exists as to the man's ability to pay, proceeds to investigate the question. While the inquiry is going on, the Poor Law authorities remain responsible to the hospital for the man's cost. If it is found that the man is really in a position to pay the money, then the Central Poor Law Office has the right to make the usual order, which is made in all cases, in which a man, who receives relief of any kind, is found to be in a position enabling him to support himself without relief. That is to say, the Poor Office, without taking the man before any sort of tribunal, draws up a certificate of the man's indebtedness to the Poor Law authorities in respect of such relief, and then this certificate (against which an appeal to the ordinary judicial authorities lies, but which, unless and until the man affected by it has presented and won his appeal, possesses full legal force as an order of attachment) is placed in the hands of a sheriff's officer, who proceeds to levy execution upon the man's goods and chattels. If a man or his relations responsible for his support is or are in a position to pay part only of the cost of the relief which he receives, that part is recovered, by the process described from him or them.

The total amount recovered in this manner in respect of relief of *all kinds* from the recipients or from their relations responsible for their support in 1906 (no later statistics are available) was £9,348.

* This is the average for the whole of the patients taken together. The Poor Law officials estimate that the actual cost in regard to patients receiving accommodation, etc., of the class provided for their clients is from 3s. to 3s. 6d. per day.

† When a man (not sent by the Poor Law or by the police) applies for admission to the hospital, he is asked to make an immediate payment in advance towards the charge, which will be made to him in respect of his treatment. If he expresses his inability to find the money, he is sent on to the Poor Law authorities to be dealt with by them. (An urgent case, however, would be admitted at once and the cost charged to the Poor Law.) The hospital usually allows a patient to discharge all subsequent payments due from him by instalments; their recovery by legal means is rare.

In addition to the Poor Law authorities, the sick funds established under the German Sickness Insurance Laws enjoy the privilege of securing for persons sent by them to the St. George Hospital treatment at a charge considerably below cost, these funds being debited at the rate of 2s. 6d. per inmate per day; the difference between that sum and that of the actual cost is paid by the Municipality. The number of persons treated on these special terms in 1907 was 6,746.

After-care of patients.

The question of after-care formed the subject of an interesting conversation between the Committee and the members of the medical staff of the hospital. When a patient is discharged, it is no part of the duty of the hospital authorities to make inquiry as to the conditions prevailing in the patient's home or as to whether he is there likely to receive such treatment and nursing as may be requisite for his complete convalescence.

If the discharged patient is a man who was sent here by the Central Poor Law Office, or by one of the sickness insurance funds, then his discharge is reported by the hospital authorities to that office or fund, as the case may be, and upon the authorities administering those institutions rests the responsibility for ascertaining the man's home conditions, and for taking any action which such conditions may be considered to necessitate, with the assistance, if required, of the sanitary department of the Municipality (see *ante*, p. 36). Thus, whether, when a man is discharged after an operation, he is likely to receive in his home all due attention, is a question on which the hospital authorities neither have, nor are in a position to have, any information. So again, if a man is discharged suffering from phthisis, the hospital authorities do not take any steps to secure that in his home an adequate supply of fresh air shall be admitted, nor that such precautions shall be there adopted as shall be suitable to prevent his family from being infected with the disease. On the other hand, if the man was in receipt of Poor Law relief, then the Poor Law authorities (since the diagnosis is mentioned on the notification, which they have received, of the man's discharge) are in a position, by at once reporting the case to the chairman of the District Committee, within whose area the man resides, to secure, through the helper in charge of the case, who will be sent by this chairman to call at the man's house, and through the Poor Law medical officer of the district, that all necessary precautions are observed. So again with regard to a man sent to the hospital by one of the sickness insurance funds; this man will, after his discharge, be looked after by the medical officer of that fund, these institutions having their own doctors, one in charge of each district of the city.

In a specially interesting case the hospital authorities will, *e.g.*, instruct a mother to bring her child (who has been the subject of an operation) back to the hospital after, say a fortnight, in order that the doctors there may see how the patient is getting on; but, as a general rule, and in principle, once a patient has been discharged, the responsibility of the hospital authorities and their staff for the case, whether as to after-care or otherwise, comes to an end, and neither are they charged with, nor do they attempt to carry out, any further duties whatever in relation to the patient, who has left the hospital.

Out-Patient Department.

Out-patients.

With regard to the treatment of out-patients, it should be observed that no direct connection exists between the Poor Law and the hospital authorities. For example, it is not the practice to allow one of the district Poor Law medical officers to send a patient of his to the hospital with the object of holding there a consultation about his case with the medical staff of the hospital nor, indeed, do any of the out-patients attend as clients of the Poor Law authorities. The out-patient department is available free of all cost, and without the necessity for producing any sort of letter of recommendation, for the benefit of all such persons as are in need of medical advice, and as are not in a position to consult and pay private medical practitioners, whether such persons are in receipt of Poor Law relief or not. The out-patients attend entirely independently of the Poor Law; and the hospital authorities, in all cases, in which they entertain (from the patient's dress, or otherwise) any suspicion that he is really not poor, require the production of the man's receipts for taxes.

As to the average daily number of out-patients at the St. George Hospital no statistics on this subject are available, but the Committee were informed that the daily attendance averages, approximately, 150.

It may be observed, in conclusion, that (as the Committee were told) the competition of this out-patient department forms the subject of complaint on the part of the medical practitioners at Hamburg.*

Cost of Hospital Treatment.

In connection with the subject of the hospital treatment of the sick poor at Hamburg, it should be mentioned, that the total number of such persons stated to have received such treatment in 1907 was 12,532, of whom 11,022 were treated at Municipal hospitals at a cost of £26,244, and 1,510 at private hospitals at a cost of £7,000.

It should also be stated, that in the course of 1907 the Municipality expended, in sending phthisical patients to sanatoria, a total sum of £1,533.

CHILDREN AND YOUNG PERSONS.

It is now time to set forth as concisely as possible the special provisions which are made under the Hamburg Poor Law system for children and young persons.

Every child, who is not under effective control exercised by his (legitimate) parents, and also every child, whose parents are not entitled to take charge of the person and property of such child, is required by the law to be placed under the care of a guardian. In every case this guardian is appointed by the Special Guardianship Court, this tribunal constituted under a law which came into force on January 1st, 1900, being also empowered to put the law in motion so as to deprive drunken, immoral, or neglectful parents of the right to take charge of their children and to send these children to be boarded out in suitable families or to place them in appropriate educational establishments. In its selection of guardians the Court is assisted by the official advice of the Orphan Committee, an authority to which the care of children, who either have no parents, or who, for reasons of the nature just explained, or on other grounds have been withdrawn from the control of their parents, is at Hamburg entrusted. This authority, which stands altogether outside and is entirely independent of the Poor Law system, is a special Committee composed of two members of the Senate, a delegate of the education authorities, and nine members of the Lower House holding office for six years, with the right to co-opt superior officials and persons holding judicial rank; under this power of co-optation the director of the Hamburg Municipal orphanage has a seat on the Committee.

Guardians appointed for children not under proper control.

The Orphan Committee is entrusted, in the first place, with the duty of providing for the maintenance and the education, at the cost of the Hamburg Municipality, of about 5,000 poor children (Class I.), and of ultimately placing these children with suitable masters and supervising them during the period of apprenticeship. These 5,000 children include, not alone orphans, but also children of parents too poor to educate them properly, or who, if they were granted ordinary Poor Law relief, would in all probability not make use of the money given to them in a manner consistent with the proper upbringing of their children, or persons, who are habitual inebriates or of immoral life, or inmates of prisons, or in grave ill-health. Whether or not these circumstances shall have arisen, justifying the consignment of the children to the care of the orphanage authorities, is decided by the Central Poor Law Office, but parents have always the right to object, and, if so, the matter is decided by the Guardianship Court, which, if this course is necessary in the interests (moral or material) of the children, has the right to over-rule the wishes of the parents.

Committee.

To the children above referred to must be added, since January 1st, 1908, children of immoral habits or very bad behaviour, whom their parents do not sufficiently control, these children being assigned to the care of the Committee by their parents or (if the parents refuse) by the Guardianship Court.

In addition to the children comprised in Class I., this Committee has also to exercise official supervision over a very large number of other children, the cost of whose maintenance is not paid for by the Municipality (Class II.); that is to say, on the one hand, all children under guardianship, and, on the other, all children under the age of

* The Committee found it impossible to visit either of the Municipal Lunatic Asylums at Hamburg, which are under the management of the same authorities as control the Municipal Hospitals. The majority of the patients in these asylums are (as the Committee were informed) persons of the lower classes, the cost of whose maintenance falls upon the city of Hamburg, while lunatics, whose relations can afford to pay for their keep, are usually sent to private asylums. The total number of persons confined in the Hamburg Municipal Lunatic Asylums in 1907 was 2,346, and the cost of their maintenance in that year amounted to £30,666.

eight years, who have been boarded out by their parents in a household other than their own (2,754 at the end of 1907). In all some 20,000 children are supervised and inspected (under the direction of this Committee).

Methods with regard to care of children.

The methods adopted by the Orphanage Committee with respect to the care of the children of Class I. (maintained by the Hamburg Municipality) are as follows :—

These children are :

- (a) Boarded out either :
 - (i.) At Hamburg ; or
 - (ii.) In country places in Northern Germany ; or
- (b) Maintained in the Municipal Orphanage at Hamburg ; or
- (c) Sent to reformatories (boys to one, girls to a separate institution).

The children boarded out in Hamburg* are the infants and younger children ; the infants are regularly visited by a medical officer and by one or other of the nine women infant inspectors employed by the Orphan Committee ; the others are supervised by voluntary inspectors, persons of means and position (about 1,000 men and 400 women), who act as honorary officers of the Orphan Committee. Hamburg is for this purpose divided into about ninety districts, in each of which some fifteen of these honorary officers work.

The elder children (two years old and upwards), if their conduct is good, are boarded out in the country (distributed over some 500 districts), where they are supervised by a number of honorary officers similar to those just described, and by three paid travelling inspectors.

The children sent to reformatories are those of vicious or intractable habits.

Care of "probationers."

There are also under the care of the Orphanage Committee a number of probationers, young persons who, after being convicted by a Criminal Court, have, by order of the Senate been released on their undertaking to lead a blameless life. Those probationers are looked after in part by salaried officials of the orphan authorities, and in part by the Hamburg honorary officers already referred to.

Number and class of children in Municipal Orphanage.

With regard to the children selected for retention in the Municipal Orphanage, these are those who, while not being criminal or really vicious, require to be treated with special attention to their morals and conduct, and those again whose physical condition demands a special degree of attention or who are of defective or feeble intellect, also children who remain for only a short time under the care of the orphan authorities, and those whose manners and character are not yet fully ascertained. The average number of the children in the orphanage during 1907 was 494.

Coming now to the second class (II.) of children—those, who are supervised, but whose maintenance is not provided for by the Orphan Committee, the necessary surveillance is exercised by the Hamburg honorary inspectors (of either sex), whose functions in relation to Class I. have been explained above.

Practice with regard to illegitimate children and their parents.

It will have been seen that under the law in force at Hamburg every child who is not under effective parental control is by law required to be placed under the care of a guardian duly appointed by a special Court of Guardianship (see *ante*, p. 49). Since neither the mother nor the putative father of an illegitimate child is by the German law recognised as possessing parental authority in relation to that child, it follows that every child at Hamburg born out of wedlock has of necessity to be placed under a guardian. The part, which the orphan authorities play in relation to this matter is a matter of so much interest that a brief account of the Hamburg practice in relation to illegitimate children and their parents will not be out of place here.

That this subject is one of some practical importance may be judged from the fact stated to this Committee by the director of the Hamburg Municipal Orphanage, that the number of illegitimate births at Hamburg is 4,000 per annum—a figure (he said) which, however much the legitimate birth-rate may and does fluctuate according to industrial prosperity or depression, remains at all times constant.

* If, *e.g.*, a widow is so ill that it becomes necessary to remove her children, of whatever age, from her home, then, should it appear probable that she will recover from her illness, it frequently occurs that these children are boarded out (at the expense of the Municipality) with suitable neighbours.

The woman, who is about to become the mother of an illegitimate child, may either be delivered in her own home, in which case she will (in exactly the same manner as if she were about to bear a legitimate infant) have at her disposal the services of a Municipal doctor and midwife (see *ante*, p. 36), or she will enter the lying-in hospital, which is a branch of the Municipal Hospital at Eppendorf, with 100 beds (or in exceptional instances, which require the permission of the Divisional Council, a small institution of a similar character maintained for the reception of "first cases" only by private charity). So far as charity is concerned, it is stated that the majority of the mothers, who are delivered for the first time of an illegitimate child, come under the care, not of any charitable society or institution, but of the Poor Law, the majority being treated in their own homes. When such women are confined in the lying-in hospital, no attempt is made there to separate them from the other inmates.*

As soon as the city registrar's office becomes aware of the birth of an illegitimate child, it is the duty of that office to report the matter at once to the special Guardianship Court. In the meantime, the mother has most likely sent the child to be boarded-out, and has come before the Poor Law authorities with a request for a grant in aid of its maintenance (compare *ante*, pp. 32-33), which will in all probability be accorded to her.

The next step is the appointment of a guardian for the infant by the Guardianship Court, which in about one-third of all the cases brought before it appoints the mother guardian of her own child, but in most instances chooses as the infant's guardian the father of its mother, if alive and of good character.

It becomes the duty of the guardian to seek for Poor Law relief for his ward, should the child be in need of relief; he also has the right (which is possessed by the mother only if she is appointed guardian) to seek by legal means to compel the putative father of the child to contribute towards the expense of its maintenance. But prosecutions of this kind, whether at the instance of the Poor Law authorities or not, although in many cases successful, meet with considerable difficulty by reason of the fact that since 1900, if it can be shown that the mother of an illegitimate child had connection with several different men, the law releases all of them from responsibility in respect of the child's maintenance. It should be added that, so far as concerns the efforts in regard to such prosecutions of the persons who have been appointed guardians of illegitimate children, it is found that their zeal in instituting legal proceedings is not very marked.

The position, however, has been most materially altered by an entirely new departure, which, within the last few months, has been made at Hamburg, and which, in effect, consists in the establishment of a "public guardian," with a large staff of officials at his disposal.

The novel practice, which has just been introduced, is that now in the large majority of cases the person appointed to be the guardian of an illegitimate is the director of the municipal orphanage. Under these new arrangements (which have been initiated as an experiment, on the instructions of the Hamburg Senate, in consequence of its having been found, that the ordinary guardians failed to exhibit sufficient energy in the performance of the duties assigned to them) this director has, since July 1st, 1908, when this system was adopted, already been appointed by the Guardianship Court the official guardian of no less than 400 children. When it is considered that the duties of this official guardian will include the task of taking legal proceedings whenever possible, against the putative fathers of the infants committed to his charge, of paying over to their mothers the amounts, which these fathers may be compelled to pay in respect of them, and supervising the arrangements for boarding-out these children, which it is the duty of their mothers to make, it will not be a subject of surprise that the staff of his office—for guardianship purposes—consist of as many as sixty clerks and other officials. It should be added that this director is *ex officio* entrusted with the guardianship and the official tutelary care of all the inmates of the Municipal Orphanage.

Director of
Municipal Orphan-
age appointed as
guardian of
illegitimate
children.

* With regard to the mothers of illegitimate children, and in particular these "first-case" mothers, the director of the orphanage was asked whether the orphan authorities took any action with a view to the rescue of such women; he replied that such women provided for their own maintenance, and were not an object of the care of those authorities; that rescue agencies, maintained by private charity, exist at Hamburg, but that the orphan authorities had no relations with them, except in so far as they informed the authorities that the mother of a child in their care had reformed or married, and in that case they sent the child back to its mother.

Costs incurred by
Orphan
Committee.

The costs incurred by the Hamburg Orphan Committee in the execution of the numerous and important duties assigned to that body amounted in 1907 to £44,450, of which a small part was provided by interest on endowments belonging to the orphanage ; but after allowing for those amounts, the excess of expenditure over receipts was no less than £39,840, which was defrayed by the municipality of Hamburg.

THE ABLE-BODIED.

Able-bodied
refused relief sent
to labour
exchanges.

So far we have been engaged in examining the manner in which different classes of persons in distress recognised by the Hamburg Poor Law authorities as the proper subject of relief, are dealt with under the system in force in that city. There remains, however, for consideration the case of the able-bodied, who, as a general rule, are expressly excluded from the category of persons whose distress is the proper subject of relief and who (save in the case of men with families) are in practice refused relief of any kind (see *ante*, p. 30). On this point the text of the Hamburg Poor Law Regulations reads as follows :—

“ The able-bodied are in suitable cases, and especially for the purpose of testing their willingness to work, to be referred to the various labour exchanges, in particular those which stand in close connection with the Central Poor Law Office. . . . In addition, the Hamburg Town Labour Colony, the Labour Colony at Schäferhof, near Pinneberg, and that at Ricklingen, have declared their readiness to admit male persons. The helpers are to bear in mind in selecting the persons to be sent to labour colonies, that it is the single men and those who are suspected of being ‘ work-shy,’ for whom, above all others, it is important to secure admission into institutions of this nature.”

Such being the method of dealing with the able-bodied applicants for relief laid down by the Hamburg Regulations, it will be well to add a few words of explanation as to the procedure adopted in referring men to labour exchanges and to give an account of the labour colonies at Hamburg and Schäferhof there mentioned.

Labour Exchanges.

Applications for
employment.

When a man out of employment applies for Poor Law relief, he is given the address of one of the labour exchanges at Hamburg appropriate to his occupation, and handed a card which he is directed to take to and leave with the officials at that exchange. On the face of this card are entered the man’s name and address and the names of the chairman of the District Committee in whose area he lives, and of the helper who has charge of his case, with an intimation that he is sent to the exchange with a view to getting work, while on the back of the card there are three blank spaces for :—

- (a) The date when the man attended at the labour exchange.
- (b) The date on which he is sent to a vacant situation ; and
- (c) The name of the employer to whom the man is sent.

This card, filled in in this manner is returned by the labour exchange to the Central Poor Law Office. If it should occur that the employer does not take the man on, or that the man refuses the job, the labour exchange (which receives from the employer a notification as to the result of the man’s application to him) will at once communicate this fact to the Poor Law Office.

Co-operation
between Poor
Law and labour
exchanges as
means of
distinguishing
“ genuine
unemployed ”
from
“ unemployables.”

It will be seen that the method adopted is such, that this co-operation between the Poor Law authorities and the officials of the various labour exchanges is of such a nature as to place those authorities, so far as the class of labour with which the operations of these exchanges are able to deal, in a position to know at once when an unemployed applicant obtains work, and to ascertain, if necessary, by inquiry from his employer, what his earnings are, and also to distinguish without the chance of error between the “ genuine unemployed ” on the one hand—men who are really anxious to secure employment, if employment is to be had, and the “ unemployables ”—men whom no employer will take on if other labourers can possibly be procured, and the “ work-shy ” who regard the performance of labour as an evil to be avoided by every means within their power on the other hand.

Development of
system in
Hamburg.

It is, however, clear that the adequacy of the test applied in the manner just described must depend upon the wideness of the range covered by the operations of the labour exchanges in each case ; and it is, therefore, well to point out that the value of the test applied in this manner at Hamburg is considerably impaired by the fact that in that city the system of labour exchanges is only very imperfectly developed, and that there are

many trades, the workmen engaged in which can never, or only in the small minority of cases, find work through a labour exchange. Thus, that important class of "casual" workmen, the builders' labourers, never get work through any of the Hamburg labour exchanges, but always go round from one building job to another until they are taken on by the employer or his foreman. Accordingly, if we wish to form an idea of the real extent to which it is possible for Poor Law authorities to derive advantage in carrying out the duties entrusted to them by co-operating with labour exchanges, we must seek, as our "crucial instance," a town in which the labour exchange system co-operating in the manner here referred to with the Poor Law authorities is highly developed, and where (as is the case in some of the principal German towns, such as Strassburg, which the Committee subsequently visited, see *post*, pp. 58-63) the proportion of the entire working-class population, who habitually obtain employment through a labour exchange, and not by what the Germans call "Umschau" (looking about) or by means of answering advertisements in the newspapers, is very considerable.

It has been stated that the system of labour exchanges is at Hamburg but imperfectly developed. While most of the more important of the German towns (such as Berlin, Munich, Frankfort-on-Main, Stuttgart, Cologne, Dresden, Leipsic, Carlsruhe, Mannheim, Freiburg, Erfurt, Nuremburg, Posen, Wiesbaden, Augsburg, and Strassburg and a great number of less considerable centres of industry) possess well-organised public labour exchanges, maintained either by the Municipality or by special associations constituted in the public interest for this purpose, and whose operations are upon an extensive scale; at Hamburg no institution of this character, and carrying on operations upon anything like this scale, is to be found.

It is true that, so long ago as 1898, the Central Poor Law Office at Hamburg was able to induce some fifty different labour registries of one kind or another (some maintained by charitable associations, some by employers, some by Trade Unions or trade guilds) to enter into an agreement to co-operate with it in regard to finding work for unemployed workmen, but the figures published in 1903 (the latest available) with respect to the result of this arrangement demonstrate conclusively how small a part of the field was covered by this co-operation between the employment agencies and the Poor Law. For these statistics prove, that, in the whole of the five-year period (1898-1902) covered by the figures, the total number of cases, in which thirty-five agencies (including a few individual employers) reported to the Central Poor Law Office the results of their efforts to find work for the workpeople sent to them by the Poor Law authorities, was no more than 1,613, of whom only one-fourth (406) found employment through these agencies. With respect to the large majority of the registries named in these statistics, the number of the persons stated to have been reported to them in the course of the five years in question by the Central Poor Law Office is absolutely insignificant, running into three figures only in the case of three registries—698 reported to the registry of the Patriotic Association (see below), which deals mainly with unskilled labour, 399 to a registry maintained by another charitable society whose operations appear to be almost exclusively concerned with finding places for women (as domestic servants, etc.), and 326 to the registry carried on by the Federation of Hamburg Employers engaged in the Iron Trades.

Success attained by co-operation between labour registries and Poor Law in Hamburg.

The Committee were able to visit and examine the operations carried on by the labour registry of the Patriotic Association; * but their attempt to inspect that belonging to the iron trades employers failed, because, upon calling at this registry by appointment, the Committee found that the secretary of the Federation had been unexpectedly compelled to leave Hamburg on urgent business, and in his absence the remaining officials of the Federation felt under the necessity of denying to the Committee access to, and declining to supply them with any information with respect to the operations of, this labour registry.

The Labour Registry of the Patriotic Association (the short title of the "Society for the Promotion of the Arts and Useful Trades") took over at the end of 1894 a registry for casual labourers, which was originally established during the cholera epidemic of 1892, being assisted in this work by a substantial annual contribution (£850 in 1907), which is made to it by the Municipality, and enjoys the monopoly of labour supply, so far as concerns

Registry of Patriotic Association.

* The Committee also paid a brief visit to one of the six registries maintained by an association of dock and wharf employers, which maintains relations with the Poor Law, but found that, owing to the very serious depression then prevailing in the Port of Hamburg, but very little business was being transacted.

the 5,000 or 6,000 casual dock labourers employed at the Municipal quays (the owners of the other docks and wharves and the shipowners being, of course, at liberty to engage their men—a very much larger number than that employed by the municipal quays—in any manner that may suit their convenience).

It is of interest to observe that the Municipality of Hamburg, in engaging the casual dockers required for work at its quays (engagements stated to be usually for a single day, or at the most for only a few days at a time), keeps in view the desirability of utilising the demand, which may from time to time exist in connection with these undertakings in such a manner as to keep down, so far as possible, the number of the claimants for Poor Law relief, and for this reason gives the preference to the weak or old men, whom a private employer will not employ, if he can help it, paying these inferior labourers a wage which is fixed (no doubt, in order to encourage the unemployed to seek work elsewhere) at a figure lower than that of the wages paid by private employers.

Number of
applicants for
employment in
1907.

The number of men, who applied to this registry for employment in 1907, was 4,834, of whom 1,301 (including 72 clerks, shop assistants, etc., and 26 waiters) are entered as belonging, according to the statements made by them, to skilled trades (including 270 painters, 113 bricklayers, 79 joiners, 69 bakers, 44 tin-smiths, and 43 blacksmiths).

In all, in the course of 1907 the number of applications for employment received by this registry was 46,798, of which 78·8 per cent. (36,847) were successful.

Out of the total number of jobs obtained in 1907, 28,798 were obtained by labourers sent to the Municipal quays, and 8,049 by men sent to private employers.

In addition to its ordinary work, this registry is also entrusted with the duty of selecting the men sent in winter to the Works Department of the Hamburg Municipality, to be employed in clearing the streets of snow and ice. The number of men thus sent to be put on this relief work in 1907–1908 (up to February 15th) was 1,511, of whom 989 were married and 522 single (how many were actually engaged is not stated).

It remains to add that a Popular Coffee-house Association sells on the premises of this labour registry to those of its clients, who care to make use of these facilities, food at prices lower than those obtaining in the coffee-shops, but not below cost. For in 1907 (as the Committee were informed) this association was able to declare a dividend on its share capital at the rate of 5 per cent. per annum.

“Card registers”
of great assistance
to Poor Law.

With respect to the information given by this registry to the Poor Law authorities, this follows the lines already indicated, and it is necessary only to mention that a complete card register of all the clients of the registry is kept, with full details as to the nature and duration of each man's employment, however short may be the time that each job may last, and as to the rate of wages which the man receives on each occasion. All this information being placed at the disposal of the Poor Law officials, it will be seen that, within the sphere of its operations, this labour registry is able to render to those authorities assistance of unquestionable value.*

The nature of the co-operation, which, under the Hamburg system, exists between the Poor Law and the labour exchanges, with special relation to the case of the able-bodied unemployed, having now been made clear, it is now proper to give some information with respect to that institution which, according to the Poor Law Regulations of Hamburg, the unemployed workman, who endeavours to find work through those agencies, uses as the second string to his bow—the Labour Colony.

I.—TOWN LABOUR COLONY.

Number of
inmates.

The Town Labour Colony at Hamburg, which was visited by the Committee, is an institution founded in December, 1891. In summer the usual number of inmates is about 100, but at the time of the Committee's visit (August 17th, 1908) there were 130 men in the colony, the largeness of this number being, as the Committee were informed, due to the industrial depression which then prevailed. In winter, the inmates are always much more numerous (164 in December, 1907).

* In addition to the Harbour Registry, which was visited by the Committee, and the operations of which are described above, the Patriotic Association has a branch registry—mainly for agricultural, partly for general labourers—at which, in 1907, 701 persons obtained work on farms, and 354 got places as unskilled workmen in various works, and also a registry for clerks, by which a small number of persons are enabled to get writing work of various kinds (almost entirely casual).

Since December 30th, 1907, the colony has been entrusted by the police authorities with the care of persons arrested for begging or as "homeless." Between the date just mentioned and February 9th, 1908, the number of such individuals handed over to the colony officials by the Hamburg police authorities was 199.

"Homeless" persons also admitted.

Apart from this arrangement, the only direct connection between the colony and the police consists in the practice, which obtains there, of sending to the police the "papers" (showing identity, last employment, etc.) of every man, who seeks the shelter of the colony, as soon as the man is admitted, and of reporting to the police all discharges as they occur. The institution, however, is not under the supervision of the police, whose officers visit the colony only when they are seeking for a man whom they have instructions to arrest.

The inmates of the colony in all cases pledge themselves to stay there for four months ; and, in fact, the majority remain there for this period.

Period of stay.

The number of persons admitted to the colony in 1907 was 393, of whom 66 were natives of Hamburg. The rate of admissions per month varied in 1907 from 58 in October and 56 in November down to 17 in March and 14 in June. Of these 393 persons admitted in 1907, 269 are stated to have been unmarried, 63 to have been widowers, 19 are put down as having been married but divorced, and 42 as having been married but separated from their wives. It will be noticed that, according to these statistics, no one of the men admitted in 1907 was a married man previously living with his wife and children ; and it may be added that out of the total number of 6,257 admissions from December 1st, 1891, to December 31st, 1907, only 106 men in all are stated to have been married men (other than divorced or separated).

Conjugal condition of persons admitted.

The director of the colony, whom the Committee questioned on this subject, stated that the colony officials did not attempt to test the truth of the men's statements as to their conjugal condition ; but that the men would have nothing to gain by not telling the truth ; in particular, men of this class have no reason to fear prosecution for not supporting their families (if any) while they are in the colony, because the fact that they have found it necessary to accept the shelter of the colony constitutes in itself an adequate proof of their being destitute, and, as such, not liable to any legal pains or penalties on the ground of their failure to support their families.

With regard to the age distribution of the 393 admissions of 1907, this was as follows —

Ages of persons admitted.

Age.	Number.
Under 20 years - - - - -	35
Between 20 and 30 years - - - - -	73
„ 30 „ 40 „ - - - - -	77
„ 40 „ 50 „ - - - - -	106
„ 50 „ 60 „ - - - - -	93
Over 60 years - - - - -	9
Total - - - - -	393

It will be seen that in more than one-half of the admissions of 1907 the men were over forty years of age, and in about one-fourth the men were between forty and fifty, while in another one-fourth of these cases the men's ages were from fifty years upwards.

As to the men thrown out of employment by the prevailing depression and then in the colony (see ante, p. 54), the director stated that these men were between the ages of forty and fifty years. He also said that in the case of the men admitted when between twenty and thirty years of age (seventy-three in 1907, or nearly one-fifth of all) the cause of these men's coming to the colony is their habits of intoxication.

The director stated that the great majority of the inmates were of the casual and unskilled class ; and the preponderance of unspecialised labour is shown by the fact

Class of persons admitted.

that out of the 393 admissions of 1907, no less than 183 were those of men entered in the Report of the colony as "workmen" (*i.e.*, trade not specified), the only other at all important class being "clerks," who in 1907 numbered twenty-eight and who, taking one year with another, always constitute well over 10 per cent. of the total admissions.

Number of men discharged.

The total number of the men discharged in 1907 was 383, of whom 140 left the colony at their own wish, it being, however, uncertain whether they found work or not, while nineteen were placed in situations by the colony authorities and a similar number found situations for themselves. Only eighteen men are entered as having left the colony without permission; but no less than 111 were sent away because they could not be induced to work or declined to comply with the regulations of the institution; in addition, twenty-one were expelled for drunkenness. It should be explained, that the inmates are allowed to go out for the whole of one day in each week, and during this leave of absence are able to obtain alcohol.

As to the nineteen men for whom the colony officials found situations in 1907, these were all men sent to farm work either through advertisements in the newspapers or through the Labour Exchange (for agricultural labour only), maintained by the colony.

Certificates of behaviour given to discharged men.

When a man is discharged from the colony, he receives a leaving certificate in one of two alternative forms. In both forms the length of the man's stay in the institution is specified; and if his behaviour there has been satisfactory, the form also contains two headings ("Industry" and "Character") which are filled in in accordance with the facts while the form of certificate given to the men, whose conduct has not been satisfactory, is altogether silent on these points. It should be understood that the latter form is the bare statement of period of employment, which, according to the German law every employer is bound to give to a workman when he leaves his employment. The Committee were informed that employers are not bound to look at a man's leaving certificate, but in fact they usually ask to see it.

Occupations of inmates.

As to the work done in the colony, this is carried out under four foremen and five colonists (men usually who have been here for some time), acting as under-foremen, and includes the manufacture of fire-wood, brushes and matting, tailoring, and shoemaking.

Earnings.

The inmates receive from 1d. to 1½d. per day as wages, and are also given certain stores, etc., as part of their remuneration. They are also clothed free of charge.

Work of the colony done at a loss.

The director estimates that there may be about 10 to 15 per cent. of the inmates, upon whose work a profit (a small profit) arises, but on the work of the men from forty to fifty years of age, a loss is shown, while with respect to the inmates of and over fifty years of age, these men can only be put to light kinds of work, and do not earn their keep, but cause a loss. Taking it all round, the work done in this colony, shows no profit, but on the contrary, a very considerable loss, which is covered by subscriptions and donations and legacies given by charitable individuals.

Increase in numbers morally improved.

In relation to the results in regard to the moral and industrial improvement of the inmates obtained by this institution, the last Report states that in 1907, "an increase took place in the number of persons, whose stay in the colony resulted in their permanent social re-habilitation."

II.—FARM COLONY AT SCHÄFERHOF.

Extent of colony and period of stay.

The same charitable association, by which the town colony at Hamburg just described, is maintained, also carries on at Schäferhof, near Pinneberg, in Holstein, a farm colony, which was inspected by the Committee. This farm, which has an extent of about 900 acres, was acquired in December, 1898. The colony is distinguished from the majority of the German labour colonies by the earnest efforts, which it makes, to induce its inmates to stay there long enough to make it possible to effect a substantial change in their moral and industrial character; for every man admitted is required to sign a pledge binding him to stay in the colony for at least twelve months, and a certain not inconsiderable number of men carry out this promise. Thus, out of the 127 men in the colony at the end of 1907 though there were sixty-three (nearly one-half) who had not yet been six months on this farm, yet there were as many as thirty who had then been at Schäferhof for one year or longer. In some cases, when a man, after leaving the colony has again applied for admission, the colony authorities have insisted upon his signing a contract to stay for two or even three years.

The number of inmates is always much greater in winter than in summer. Thus, Number of in 1907 the maximum number was reached in December (127), while the minimum was inmates. reached in May (86). In fact, just when there is most work to do in the harvest field and the tree nurseries, then there is the greatest dearth of men to do it. Thus, in 1906, the number of men actually available for this work was no more than thirty-eight, of whom, moreover, a considerable number were only half able-bodied.

As the time of the Committee's visit the inmates, instead of numbering, as usual in August, 100 or less, numbered 123, the explanation given being the prevalence of the industrial depression already mentioned, and the officials, in order to keep some seven places vacant for old colonists—men who had spent, say, two years at Schäferhof, and who might probably seek shelter there again—were turning away from four to six applicants every day.

Out of the 1,742 admissions between December 2nd, 1898, and December 31st, 1907, Conjugal 345 were those of men born in Hamburg (in 1907, 21 out of the total of 174). It is worthy condition of remark that out of this aggregate of 1,742 admissions no more than 73 (14 out of 174 persons admitted, in 1907) are entered in the report of the colony as "married" (compare *ante*, p. 55).

The age distribution in 1907 was as under :—

Ages of persons admitted,

Age.	Number of Admissions.
Under 20 years - - - - -	9
Between 20 and 30 years - - - - -	31
" 30 " 40 " - - - - -	37
" 40 " 50 " - - - - -	49
" 50 " 60 " - - - - -	37
Over 60 years - - - - -	11
Total - - - - -	174

Here we see that in 77 cases the men were under 40 years of age, while in no less than 97 cases the men were forty years of age or upwards, and in 48 cases fifty years or more, of whom 11 were over sixty years of age.

Among occupational classes the nondescript "workmen" loom large (100 out of Occupations of 174), no one of the specialised trades, except the bricklayers (10), showing double figures. persons admitted.

The statistics of discharges show four men who "obtained situations by their own Discharges from efforts," and twenty-nine who "left by their own desire" (whether to take up situations colony. or not, is not stated), while six "ran away"; seventy-four were discharged "for breach of their agreement" with the colony authorities, and ten for "bad behaviour." The number of those who left because the time for which they had agreed to come had expired, was twenty-five.

The work done, which is exclusively agricultural, is carried out under the director, Occupations of his brother (who assists him), and a gardener; there are also a number of gangers; these inmates. are colonists who have been at Schäferhof for some time; and there are also employed five aged labourers who had been employed by the previous proprietor of the estate, and were kept on when the farm was acquired for the colony.

In winter, although the farm could, as the last report states, easily be worked with thirty men, yet the colony authorities contrive to find work for the much larger number of men who crowd the place at that season; this work consists in trenching land, that is being reclaimed or improved, breaking stones for the colony roads, threshing, etc.

All the inmates receive some payment in respect of their work. In a man's first Earnings. year he gets no cash, all his earnings being credited to his account; after the end of his first year he gets cash to the extent of 1s. a week, the rest being entered to his credit.

The rate of pay is from 1d. to 6d. a day, according to the kind of work that a man can perform. The average weekly earnings may be taken to be from 1s. 6d. to 3s. per week. In addition to these wages the colonists receive free washing, and clothes, and certain other stores.

It may be noted that an ordinary agricultural labourer in the district receives usually a wage of 2s. 6d. a day, together with free quarters in the farm ; or if boarded as well as lodged, and hired by the year, he gets about £20 a year. The fact that, after their first year in Schäferhof, the colonists are allowed to receive out of their earnings 1s. a week in cash, is, according to the colony officials, the source of much trouble ; for it enables a man to pay his fare to Hamburg, and very often he does not return to the colony.

Cost of
maintenance of
colonists.

It is reckoned that each colonist costs 7s. a week for maintenance, and receives, on the average, 2s. a week in wages. About one-half of the men are said to do work worth this sum of 9s. a week, the others not. As between the men, who stay a comparatively long time in the colony, and the others, there is (it was stated) no difference in this respect (as to their cost being covered by the value of their labour). The men who stay there for three years or more, are good workmen, but generally rather aged ; still, these men are a source of profit, rather than of loss.

Increase in
number morally
improved.

As to the moral results of this institution, there is certainly a great deal of recidivism ; but the director feels sure that reclamation is effected in the case of about 10 per cent. of the inmates ; and at Schäferhof, as at the Hamburg town colony, the year 1907 is stated to have shown an increase in the number of men permanently rehabilitated.

Travellers' home
for workmen on
tramp.

It should be added that at Schäferhof there is, in addition to the farm colony, a travellers' home, in which workmen on tramp are taken in, and given, in return for the performance of a task of work which is set them, temporary shelter (288 in 1907).

As in the case of the town colony, the loss, which results from the working of the Schäferhof colony, is made up by donations and subscriptions.

In bringing to a conclusion their account of the Poor Law system of Hamburg, the Committee wish to express to the officials of the various authorities, whose work they studied, their best thanks for the extreme courtesy with which these gentlemen answered the many questions addressed to them, and for the mass of valuable information which they were good enough to place at their disposal ; in particular, the Committee feel greatly and specially indebted to Dr. O. J. Lohse, the Director of the Poor Law Administration, to Herr R. Kluge, the Secretary of the Central Poor Law Office, and to Dr. J. Petersen, the Director of the Municipal Orphanage.

STRASSBURG.

LABOUR EXCHANGE.

The Strassburg Labour Exchange, established by the Municipality of that town in 1896, has received so complete a development in all directions, and its importance in connection, not alone with the question of employment, but especially as an example of close co-operation between employment agencies and the Poor Law, is so great that a somewhat detailed account of its operations, based upon information, which the director of this registry, Herr Friedrich, was good enough to give to the Committee, cannot fail to be of interest.

Management of
Exchange.

The Exchange is under the management of a joint-committee of employers and employed sitting under the chairmanship of the Mayor of Strassburg. Out of the twenty members of the Committee, one half (divided equally between employers and employed) are selected by the Municipal Council, while of the other half, five are selected by an association of employers and five by trade union organisations.*

* In all, out of the twenty members of this Committee (exclusive of the chairman), six are described as representatives of Trade Union organisations (five of the Federation of Social Democrat Unions, one of the Christian Trade Unions). The Director of the Labour Exchange, when asked by the Committee whether the membership of the Strassburg Trade Unions had increased, since the establishment of that office, replied in the affirmative (as to both the Social Democrat and the Christian organisations).

The extent of the operations carried on by the Strassburg Labour Exchange (which Numbers of deals with labour of every class without exception, including not alone artisans and situations and labourers, both industrial and agricultural, but also clerks and domestic servants) may applications for be gathered from the figures given below :—

MALES.

Year.	Number of Applications for Employment.	Number of Situations offered.	Number of Applicants who obtained Situations.	Number of Situations filled.
1901	5,178	1,814	1,494	1,494
1902	6,012	2,359	1,515	1,515
1903	11,790	8,856	4,820	4,648
1904	16,547	14,537	8,024	7,664
1905	20,109	18,566	11,457	11,162
1906	23,282	18,956	12,436	12,171
1907	27,005	19,387	14,166	13,772

FEMALES.

Year.	Number of Applications for Employment.	Number of Situations offered.	Number of Applicants who obtained Situations.	Number of Situations filled.
1901	2,965	2,259	1,040	1,040
1902	3,433	2,553	1,261	1,261
1903	4,143	3,604	1,698	1,702
1904	5,349	4,756	2,326	2,333
1905	5,258	5,468	2,596	2,598
1906	6,829	6,420	3,295	3,293
1907	7,324	7,189	3,308	3,307

It will be seen that in 1907 there were 139·29 applicants for employment for every 100 vacancies for males, while with regard to females supply and demand were nearly equal, there having been only 101·87 applicants for 100 vacancies—very nearly all of them being situations in various branches of domestic service. While the figures as to males point to the existence in 1907 of considerable unemployment, the degree of that lack of work appears not to have been, on the whole, very severe, for the duration of such unemployment exceeded one week in regard to no more than 15·73 per cent. of these applicants, while its duration exceeded four weeks in regard to only 2·67 per cent.—a result which the Report for 1907 of the Strassburg Labour Exchange attributes to the strenuous efforts made by its officials to secure for its clients at any rate casual employment.

The Strassburg Exchange stands in close relationship not only with a large number of other Municipal Exchanges in Alsace-Lorraine (at Colmar, Gebweiler, Markirch, Mülhausen, Bischweiler, Buchsweiler, Schiltigheim, Schlettstadt, Zabern, Diedenhofen, Metz, Saargemund and Saarunion) but also with Public Labour Exchanges in other parts of Germany, (e.g., over 200 young men sent two winters ago to the mines of Westphalia), and in some neighbouring countries.* In all in 1907 the number of engagements of applicants for employment effected through the agency of the Strassburg Exchange in places outside that city was 2,685. (It should be mentioned that, as a rule, the Exchange sends to situations at places distant from Strassburg only single men, but if married men wish to be sent to such situations, they are required to enter into an undertaking that during their absence their family shall not apply for Poor Law relief).

Co-operation
between
Exchanges all over
Germany.

Whether as to situations in or outside of Strassburg, no charge whatever is made to any applicants for employment; and, so far as concerns the outside operations of this office, by arrangement with the (State) railways of Alsace-Lorraine, and with those of Luxemburg, Baden, the Palatinate and Wurttemberg, a workman sent by the Strassburg Exchange to a place outside the city (if the journey exceed sixteen miles) is allowed to

* The Strassburg Exchange sends a not inconsiderable number of governesses to England, but its principal foreign correspondents are in Eastern France, Luxemburg, and Switzerland.

travel free in the fourth, or if there are no fourth-class carriages on the train, then at half-price in the third-class ; and in the case of a workman unable to pay even this reduced rate, if the man's industrial character is shown to be good, his ticket is given to him free of cost.

Contractors for Municipal work apply to Exchange when requiring men.

Most of the work required by the city of Strassburg is done through contractors ; and by the Regulations of the Works Department of the Strassburg Municipality it is provided that "every contractor, when engaging workmen, is obliged to apply for such workmen in the first instance to the Municipal Labour Exchange."*

It will be understood that if the Municipal Exchange is not in a position to supply the labour required, the contractor is at liberty to seek workmen as and where he will.† He is also at liberty to reject any particular man sent to him by the Exchange, if unsuitable for the work ; but if he appears to use this liberty as a cloak for failing to fulfil the obligation here referred to, then the matter is investigated by the Committee of Management of the Labour Exchange. For infringement of this Regulation the contractor is fined 10s. for each man wrongfully engaged by him ; for a third offence he would not only be fined, but be struck off the list of contractors eligible to tender for Municipal work ; but such a case has not yet occurred. Nor indeed, does the necessity for fining contractors arise at all frequently. What usually happens, is that the Social Democrat Workmen's Unions report the matter to the authorities of the Labour Exchange, who invite the employer concerned to attend and explain the matter, and if they think the charge proved, warn (but do not fine) him. In most cases it is found that, where an infringement of the Regulation has occurred, this is the fault of one of the employer's foremen, he himself having no knowledge of the action taken in the matter.

Preference given to Strassburg men.

It should also be mentioned, that by another of the regulations for contractors for Municipal work, such employers are bound to give the preference to workmen residing at Strassburg, and that the wages of all workpeople employed by contractors on such work are required to be not less, and their hours of labour not longer, than those specified in these regulations (such wages being fixed by a Special Wages Committee of the Municipality).

All Municipal employees engaged through Exchange.

As to the employees of the Municipality itself (*e.g.*, the forty men, who constitute the permanent staff of the street repair department, and the workpeople employed in street cleaning,‡ and in connection with the city slaughter house, pawnshop, and swimming bath, or on the Municipal Waterworks) the men engaged by the city authorities are in all cases thoroughly capable men, who must have resided at Strassburg for at least one year, and who (save in exceptional cases) are required to be engaged through the Municipal Labour Exchange.

It has been mentioned above, that in relation to Municipal work done by contractors preference is required to be given to Strassburg men. A similar practice prevails in relation to workpeople in the direct employment of the city.§

So far as concerns work done by contractors for the Provincial Government of Alsace-Lorraine, an Order of the Ministry of Public Works, has since June 1st, 1908, required all contractors to obtain the men whom they require so far as possible through one or other of the Municipal Labour Exchanges of the Province.||

* The different towns in Alsace-Lorraine have each its own rule on this point ; that in force at Mühlhausen is identical in effect with the Strassburg rule.

† The contractor is not under any obligation to discharge his permanent nucleus of workmen, the Regulation applying only to *new* men taken on for the job. He is required, however, to bring his wages sheets to the Labour Exchange once a week, and a member of the Exchange staff is entrusted with the special duty of verifying the fact, that no new man has been put on, except after application to that office.

‡ There are engaged in this work a few women—mostly widows of former Municipal employees, engaged long ago, and whom it is thought better not to discharge—but the employment of women in this kind of work is discountenanced.

§ How serious a matter the competition of immigrant foreigners may be is shown by the case which occurred five years ago, at a time when the Municipality was spending £3,000 in winter relief works. At that time a German contractor, building a large station at Strassburg for the administration of the (State) railways, employed on the job a large number of Italian workmen, who (as stated to the Committee) got the preference as being less well-organised than native workmen and more docile (under the Italian sub-contract—"Padrone" system).

|| All the Public Labour Exchanges in Alsace-Lorraine are Municipal institutions (except one, organised many years ago at Mühlhausen by the employers in the textile trades, which, however, works in friendly relationship with the Municipal Exchange of that town).

The gasworks of Strassburg belong to an English Company, which last year entered into an agreement to engage all its labour through this Labour Exchange; between April 4th, and December 31st, 1907, 480 workmen and two clerks were thus supplied to the company.* It is of interest to observe that this agreement was made as the sequel to the successful action taken by the Mayor with the assistance of the Exchange officials in promoting the settlement (without any strike or lock-out taking place) of a dispute between the gasworkers and their employers and as part of the terms of settlement. Similar action, attended with the like success, was also taken in 1907, with respect to a strike which occurred in the building trade.

In this connection it may be considered to be a pardonable digression, if in this place a few lines are devoted to describing briefly the functions performed by the Strassburg Labour Exchange in relation to the pacific settlement of differences arising between employers and employed. It is recognised to be the duty of the Exchange to give notice to the Mayor of Strassburg of any such difference at the earliest possible moment, so that he may, with its expert assistance, take immediate action with a view to averting the threatened strike or lock-out. Thus, in July, 1906, this official intervention was able to bring about the signing of a wages agreement between the navvies and builders' labourers and their employers; in August, 1906, the director of the Labour Exchange secured the settlement of a strike which had arisen in one of the largest transport establishments of Strassburg; and in April, 1907, occurred the peaceful arrangement of the gasworkers' demands already mentioned. In fact, the Report for 1906 of the Labour Exchange states, that: "In Strassburg it now hardly ever occurs, that a difference between employers and employed arises without the mediation of the Mayor being invited by the parties to the dispute before any cessation of work takes place."

Exchange as means of settling differences between employers and employed.

It may here be of interest to note what is the practice prevailing at Strassburg with respect to the attitude to be observed by the Municipal Exchange in regard to the conduct of its operations during the pendency of trade disputes when these occur either at Strassburg or elsewhere.

Attitude of Exchange during trade disputes.

The paragraphs in the Rules of the Exchange with respect to this matter read as under:—

"It is the duty of the Exchange to notify, either verbally or in writing, to such employers and employees as make use of the Exchange and also to the other Labour Exchanges in Alsace-Lorraine, any strikes or lock-outs which may occur.

"The officials of the Labour Exchange are to confine themselves to the bare statement of the existence of such trade dispute, and must strictly avoid anything in the nature of advice, either as to engaging or not engaging workmen on the one hand, or as to accepting or not accepting work offered on the other.

"If, under the circumstances referred to in the second paragraph, a workman is sent to a situation outside of Strassburg, the usual reduction in his railway fare is not granted."

The director of the Labour Exchange stated, that in case of a strike or a lock-out the operations of the Exchange go on undisturbed, but that the officials there informed an applicant for employment that at the works, at which employment is offered, a dispute is in existence.

In the same way, in sending men to fill vacancies, they inform the employer (if such be the case) that these men are on strike or locked-out.

For the purpose of giving such information (to workmen and employers) it is part of the duty of the director of the Labour Exchange to keep himself informed as to the occurrence of strikes and lock-outs.

When a Labour Exchange outside Strassburg asks by telephone for workmen to be supplied, then, the rules of the Strassburg Exchange require the official receiving this request at once to ask if any strike or lock-out is pending at the place from which this message is received. Supposing that the answer is that a strike is in progress, then men seeking work are informed of the vacancies, but are at the same time informed of the existence of the dispute. If the men notwithstanding express their desire to accept the employment in question, the Exchange officials abstain from making any remark.

* The Strassburg Labour Exchange also supplies to the company owning the tramways of that city about one-fifth of the labour which it requires. It is (the Committee were informed) to the interest of this company to be on the best of terms with the Labour Exchange, because every winter the company requires a large number of men, and, to a great extent, depends on the Exchange for the supply of this labour.

Attitude of Trades
Unions towards
Exchange.

Asked if the working-classes (*generally*) were satisfied with these arrangements, the director replied that they were very well contented with them. Asked whether he could give a similar answer with regard to the views of the *organised* workmen at Strassburg, the director replied that, so far as concerned the Social Democrat Trade Unions, these organisations were not satisfied with these arrangements; "they are satisfied with nothing." On the other hand, the Christian Trade Unions are (he said) content with them.

Asked whether the organised workmen of Strassburg had passed any resolutions on this subject, the director stated, that these men agreed to the provisions above set forth provisionally, in order to see how they worked. In his opinion they will not accept these provisions as satisfactory; they have passed resolutions asking that, in case of a trade dispute, the Exchange shall entirely stop its operations so far as concerns the supply of labour to the employers concerned in the dispute.

The Social Democrat Trade Unions have also passed a resolution, demanding that they shall be allowed, when a trade dispute exists, to post up at the Labour Exchange a notice warning workmen to "keep away from" the works affected by the dispute. But this they are not allowed to do; and a warning of this kind addressed to plasterers and stucco workers (among whom a strike had existed up to a few days ago) and which had been put up at the Exchange by the workmen, but had at once been taken down again by the Exchange officials, was shown to the Committee by the director.

Degree of success
of Exchange.

To return now to the normal operation of the Labour Exchange, it will be of interest to inquire, to what extent its action is able to cover the entire field of labour,* and the particular parts of this field in which its activity appears to meet with the greatest degree of success.

The questions here suggested were answered by the director of the Labour Exchange in the following manner. It is not possible to state, even approximately, what proportion of the total number of engagements of employees made at Strassburg in the course of the year are likely to be made through the agency of the Municipal Labour Exchange. Taking all the skilled occupations together (that of clerks being included in this category), he estimated that roughly one-half of employees belonging to skilled occupations find work through the Exchange. In regard to some trades the percentage is much higher. Thus, as to journeymen engineers, locksmiths, etc., as to hairdressers, chimney-sweeps, and bakers, the organisation of the employers in each case have a clause in the rules of the association requiring them to obtain through this Labour Exchange all the labour which they may require (a master baker, who infringes this rule, being fined £2), while out of the three workmen's organisations, which formerly maintained employment registries of their own, the bakers and the hairdressers have transferred their registries to the Labour Exchange; that of the great national organisation of the compositors stands in close relationship with the Exchange which, notwithstanding the existence of the Trade Union registry, is the agency through which 10 per cent. of the Strassburg printers find employment. Of the Strassburg cabinet-makers the director estimates that 70 per cent. find work through the Exchange.

When we come to the unskilled men (who may be taken to constitute 40 per cent. of all applicants) anything like an accurate estimate of the relative degree of success attained by the Labour Exchange in finding work for its clients becomes a matter of very great difficulty, because the engagements made in the case of unskilled labourers are to a very large extent of a casual nature, so that one and the same man counts several times over in the annual figures, say, from five to ten times (as against at most two to three times in the case of men following specialised occupations.)† This much, however,

* The figures of the Census of Occupations taken in 1907 not being yet available, it is impossible to state the number of workpeople in Strassburg; but as a rough approximation (*see* Appendix D, *post*, p. 118), that number may be taken as 24,000, exclusive of females, as to whom recent figures can be obtained.

† With the special object of ascertaining what has been the actual amount of unemployment within a given period of every man who seeks to be employed on relief works in winter (*see post*, pp. 65-70), the Strassburg Exchange has, since April 1st, 1908, begun to keep a record of the number of different occasions on which each of its clients is provided with employment in the course of a year through its agency.

it is possible to say : that a man's application for work is more likely to be quickly satisfied if he is unskilled than if he is skilled, because, as a rule, unskilled labourers are engaged in large numbers at one time, and in their case far fewer questions as to the men's capacity are asked than is usual when a man is being sought for to fill a vacancy in a skilled trade.

Before leaving this part of our subject it may be well to state briefly the manner in which the Strassburg Labour Exchange acts in the selection of the particular work-people who are to be sent to employers in need of labour, and of the particular employers to whom workpeople desiring to obtain employment shall be passed on. Selection of workmen from applicants.

Last year the vexed question of "first come, first served," was raised by one of the representatives on the Managing Committee of the Social Democrat Trade Unions, and after prolonged discussion was settled in the following manner. It was generally agreed that for a variety of reasons (including such considerations as each man's special knowledge of a particular branch of a trade, his age and so on) it was practically impossible for the Labour Exchange to adhere strictly to this order of precedence, which, however, ought to be followed in the absence of special circumstances of the nature just indicated. At the same time it was resolved that the alteration of the rules of the Exchange by an addition embodying the principle thus laid down was not desirable.*

With respect to the demand, which in England at any rate has sometimes been put forward by the workmen's organisations, that a public Labour Exchange should refuse to send workmen to employers who pay less than the wages recognised as "fair" by the Trade Unions, or who in other respects fail to observe what these organisations consider to be "fair" conditions, the director of the Strassburg Exchange, when questioned as to the practice in this respect of his office, replied that the rule adhered to in all cases was to send unemployed workmen first to those vacant situations in which the conditions prevailing were most advantageous to the workmen employed.

It may be mentioned, that any man, who is sent by the Labour Exchange to a vacant situation, and who, after accepting that offer of employment fails to go to work at the job, is excluded from the use of the Exchange for three months.

So far we have been dealing with the functions performed by the Strassburg Labour Exchange as an agency for enabling workpeople to secure employment. In relation to this subject, it is only necessary to add that the Exchange always makes special efforts to find work suited to their capacity for men whose efficiency has been impaired by disease or by accident—efforts, which, although employers are in many cases unable to retain these men for long on account of their infirmity, may yet be said to meet with a certain degree of success.

In addition to its principal work, the nature of which has been above described, the Labour Exchange carries out in relation on the one hand, to the apprenticeship of children leaving school, and on the other, to the provision made at Strassburg for those who fail to obtain work, duties of great importance—duties which have reference to : (a) relief works ; and (b) insurance against unemployment ; and the methods adopted by the Exchange in the performance of these special functions will now be described.

APPRENTICESHIP.

The urgent necessity for the establishment of some agency adapted to secure the apprenticeship of children leaving school in skilled trades (in which they may hope in due time to secure permanent and fairly remunerative employment), and the great value of such action as a means of diminishing the growth of a class of casual and unskilled labour (especially liable to suffer the evils, both material and moral, consequent upon extreme irregularity of employment, accompanied in many cases by a rate of pay which can scarcely be considered as anything like adequate to provide for the necessities of Necessity of scheme for securing apprenticeships in skilled trades for children leaving school.

* As between two men equally suitable, the office gives the first chance of employment to a man who is insured against unemployment (see *post*, p. 70).

the workpeople) are now fully recognised in this country ;* and the systematic organisation of apprenticeship by the zealous officials of the Strassburg Labour Exchange excited in a special degree, the admiration of this Committee.

Co-operation of
Exchange officials
with teachers.

This organisation, the development of which upon its present lines was commenced in 1903, involves the close co-operation of the Labour Exchange officials and the teachers of the higher classes in the Municipal schools, to whose previously assigned duties there has recently (upon the occasion of an advance in the scale of their remuneration) been added that of exercising a continuous supervision over, and from time to time giving away necessary advice to their former pupils from the day on which these young people leave school, until they reach their majority, such advice being specially concerned with the selection (with the assistance of the Labour Exchange) of suitable apprenticeships and such supervision with the verification of the due execution by the pupils and by their masters of their respective duties under the indentures of apprenticeship.

The procedure adopted is briefly of the following nature. The school teachers are provided by the Labour Exchange with cards, one of which they give to each of their pupils who is about to leave the school. This card has blanks for (among other things) the choice of a trade made by the pupil, a statement as to whether his parents can lodge and keep him during the period of his apprenticeship, whether they are in a position to pay a premium (which at Strassburg is seldom demanded, except by cooks, unless where the apprentice is to receive board and lodging free) whether they object or not to his going to be apprenticed at a place away from Strassburg and the name of the master to whom his parents would like the lad to be apprenticed.† The boy is required to fill up the card in his own handwriting ; after he has done so his teacher notes upon it his opinion of the boy's progress in his studies, his industry, and his conduct generally, and sends it to the Labour Exchange. The next step is that the director of that exchange and the Municipal Medical Officer go to the school at which the boy is receiving instruction (his parents being also invited to attend) and examine the boy. The doctor then enters in blank spaces provided at the back of the card his report on :—

- (1) The boy's " general constitution."
- (2) His appearance, and whether well or ill nourished.
- (3) His principal organs (including lungs) ; and
- (4) Whether in any way mentally defective, together with
- (5) His general remarks.

The object of this medical examination is to make it certain that a lad shall not be sent into a trade for which, by reason of health conditions, he is unsuited.

On the other hand, every master, to whom a boy is apprenticed, has undergone a most careful scrutiny. For when the card, on which an employer expresses his desire to take an apprentice and the terms on which he is prepared to take him, is received at the Labour Exchange, it is at once sent to the Strassburg branch of the Alsace-Lorraine Association of Handicraftsmen, which stands in close connection with the Labour Exchange in relation to its apprenticeship work, and which returns it to the Exchange, having first stamped on it " I.," " II.," or " III.," thereby informing the director that the employer in question is in all respects fit to have a boy apprenticed to him, or that he is moderately satisfactory,

* In their Report for 1907 (Cd. 4,300 of 1908, pp. 14, 15), the Commissioners of Prisons state that in the course of that year Mr. Grant Wilson, the Honorary Secretary of the Borstal Association, " has called our attention to what his experience has taught him is a great defect in our social system—viz., the absence of any plan whereby lads leaving the elementary schools, perhaps with good character and good ability, can be diverted into the paths of permanent employment, skilled or unskilled, instead of being left, as they are, to take their chance in the labour market to earn what few shillings they can by casual jobs, and, in many cases, to drift, from lack of superintendence or interest in their work, into idle and loafing habits—the breeding-ground of criminal propensity. We have been furnished with figures showing that, in a great majority of cases dealt with by the Association, not only were these lads unemployed at the time of their conviction, but that they had been unemployed, except at rare intervals, since leaving school. Parliament has recognised already, and is about, we hope, to recognise still further, the principle of special treatment for adolescents when in prison, so that they may be trained, if possible, for a life of honest industry. We are tempted to ask whether it would not be a wiser policy to begin at an earlier stage. We have an object lesson in the *Gewerbe* or continuation schools, of Germany, and we read with surprise and envy that, in Munich alone, 80 per cent. of the boys leaving elementary schools are apprenticed to some trade or other until the age of eighteen years.

† The practice of apprenticing a boy to a *journeyman* is unknown at Strassburg. The method adopted by the authorities of the Labour Exchange for discovering employers willing, if approved, to take apprentices is to advertise in the newspapers ; also the Association of Handicraftsmen (*see post*, p. 65) advises its members to report to those authorities vacancies for apprentices.

or that he either takes more apprentices than he can properly teach, or else is addicted to an injudicious consumption of strong drink.

In speaking of the class of employers to whom boys are apprenticed by the Strassburg Labour Exchange, it has been necessary (because no other translation of the term is possible) to make use of the expression "Handicraftsmen"; and it may be convenient to explain that by a handicraftsman is meant a person engaged in what is classed as "hand-work," as opposed to "factory" industry, and who is either an employer in that trade, with journeymen employed by him, or is an independent artisan ("independent," because he is "his own employer").

The Strassburg authorities always choose for the lads, whom they apprentice, a "hand-work," rather than a "factory" industry (*i.e.*, so far as the Strassburg Exchange is concerned, mainly textile factories, chocolate factories and breweries), because the earnings of the operatives in factories are, as a rule, lower than those of the artisans engaged in the non-factory trades, and because these authorities favour the multiplication so far as possible of independent (masterless) craftsmen, and while a factory operative has practically no chance of ever becoming his own master, the reverse is the case in the "hand-work" trades. It is, however, the fact, as the Committee were informed, that about one-fifth of the apprentices, placed with handicraftsmen by the Strassburg Labour Exchange leave their masters before the expiration of their apprenticeship usually in order to take employment in factories.

Preference given to hand-work rather than "factory" industry.

The direct operations of the Strassburg Labour Exchange in regard to apprenticeship (which are conducted without any fee being charged) already cover a very considerable part of the field; out of all the youths who left the Strassburg elementary schools in 1907, about one in four, or if we include secondary schools, one in five, have already been or shortly will be apprenticed through this agency. In addition, in a large number of cases, the Exchange places its valuable advice at the disposal of parents, who consult its officials with respect to apprenticeships which they secure for their children without the direct intervention of the Exchange. It may also be mentioned, that employers also, when asked by a boy's parents to take their son as apprentice, frequently seek and obtain from the Labour Exchange officials information with respect to the capacity and conduct of the lad.

As may well be supposed, many parents, whose earnings are not large, find it difficult to allow their son (instead of taking up, as soon as he leaves school, some unskilled occupation, being thus enabled at once to contribute a more or less substantial amount to the family income) to be apprenticed in a skilled trade, in which the lad will, in his first year either receive no wages or only 1s. a week, beginning to earn 2s. to 4s. a week only in his second year. For the purpose of overcoming difficulties of this nature the Provincial Government places at the disposal of the Alsace-Lorraine Municipal Labour Exchanges an annual grant (at present £30, to be increased, as is expected, to £100) with which to pay for the premiums of, and provide the necessary outfit of clothing for the sons of parents thus circumstanced (whether such parents are in receipt of Poor Law relief or not).

Government grant to help pay expenses of apprenticeship.

It remains to add, that, while up to now the apprenticeship work of the Strassburg Labour Exchange has dealt with boys only, it is intended next year (1909) to commence dealing with the apprenticeship of girls.

RELIEF WORKS.

The provision of labour to meet the needs of workpeople suffering from the slackness, which at Strassburg, especially in the building trades, recurs in every winter,* takes two forms.

* Unemployment, so far as concerns men without families, whom it is possible to send to situations away from Strassburg, is, at that place, as the director of the Labour Exchange informed this Committee, entirely a *winter* phenomenon. In summer (April 1st to October 31st), he can always provide single men with jobs *somewhere*, if not in their own skilled trades, then in some lower form of work; he added that he could do the same for married men if it was possible to send them away from the city. This statement appearing to the Committee to be a little difficult to reconcile, without some explanation, with the fact that (as above stated) there were in 1907, 139 male applicants for each 100 vacant situations, the director drew their attention to the fact that his statement was meant to apply to the regular clients of the Exchange only, and to those among such clients as are able-bodied and willing to work, while the figures just referred to include persons merely passing through Strassburg (who, if they call at the Exchange, are informed of any vacancies existing at the moment, but are not otherwise assisted to find work), and also the sick and the work-shy among its regular clients.

Forms of relief work.

Since the frosty weather, which accounts for so much lack of work, is at the same time the season of the ice-harvest, the director of the Strassburg Labour Exchange has been able to make with the brewers of that town (who require a vast quantity of ice) an agreement specially meeting the needs of men suffering from winter unemployment. As the cold months come round, the director, having picked out those applicants who have lived at Strassburg for at least one year, and who appear to him to be proper recipients of relief work, sends them to the breweries, where under this agreement these men enjoy an absolute preference in relation to this ice-work, with the right to receive the full current rate of wages for this work, and with the certainty that no single vacancy can be filled by any other applicants ; for the director sends an official from the Labour Exchange at 5 a.m. each morning, whose duty it is to see that no one except these approved workmen shall be engaged.

Municipal work for unemployed.

For the most part, the work provided at Strassburg for the relief of the unemployed is found for them by the Municipality, which in almost every year since 1890 has employed a larger or smaller number of its distressed citizens on work specially organised for their benefit under the direction of a Special Distress Work Committee—work, which is put in hand at a date fixed (according to the circumstances obtaining in each year) by the director of the Labour Exchange. This work is of three kinds. In the first place, there is “reserve” work, which consists of work necessary to be done for the town at some time or other, and the execution of which is purposely deferred until the winter slackness begins to make itself manifest. In addition, when all the work that has thus been “reserved” has been carried out, other work of a similar nature is put in hand by the Municipality as relief work (proper). Work of the former class is done at the ordinary current rates of pay, but work of the latter class is done at special rates of wages lower than current rates (in order to induce the recipients to take other work, if they can get it) ; in neither case does the performance of the work carry with it the penalty of disfranchisement.

In the last place there is provided for men who are already in receipt of Poor Law relief, or who are “work-shy” and generally of inferior character, work executed under the usual conditions of Poor Law task work and entailing the loss of voting rights.

Reserving work for unemployed.

With regard to the system of relief work in force at Strassburg, and in particular to the plan of reserving work to meet the needs of men unable to obtain ordinary employment owing to the prevalence of industrial depression, it should be pointed out that in the German Empire this system has long received the sanction of the highest authorities, by whom its adoption has been most strenuously advocated. Thus, in July, 1894, the Government of Prussia addressed to the Royal Presidents of Provinces a “Circular concerning the Organisation of the Provision of Employment,” signed by the Minister of Commerce and of the Interior, in which occurs the following passage :—

“We further request you to have the goodness to direct your attention to those measures, which are calculated to prevent the occurrence of want of work on a wide scale, or to mitigate its effects when it is unavoidable. Not only the State, but also the Provinces, districts, and communes, in their capacity as employers, are bound to do their utmost to counteract the evil in question by paying general and methodical attention to the suitable distribution and regulation of the works to be carried for out their account. In almost every industrial establishment of importance there are tasks, which do not absolutely need to be performed at a fixed time ; just so in every State and communal administration there are works for the allotment of which the time may, within certain limits, be freely chosen according to circumstances. If all public administrations, in making their arrangements, would take timely care to choose for such works times in which want of employment is to be expected, if especially works in which unemployed people of all kinds, including in particular unskilled labourers, can be made use of, were reserved for such time of threatening want of employment as have almost regularly recurred of late in winter in the larger towns and industrial centres, the real occurrence of widespread want of employment could certainly be prevented in many cases, and serious distress warded off. A mitigation of the distress will often prove possible if, when the need of hands begins to diminish at times when other work is wont to be hard to find, the public industrial establishments do not at once dismiss their hands, but render it possible to keep them all on by shortening the daily hours of work or by putting in rest shifts, as is usual in the mining industry.

“Increased provision and opportunities of work will not be admissible, indeed, without simultaneous measures being taken to prevent the measures taken from increasing the already excessive flocking of the unemployed to the great towns, and thereby endangering their success. For this purpose, care will have to be taken that only such unemployed persons are admitted to the ‘relief works’ as have their domicile for purposes of relief, or have, at least, been regularly at work for a definite period, in the commune in which such works are undertaken.

"As the experience of the last few years has repeatedly shown that even large communes have been wanting in the desirable foresight, and have not set relief works on foot till the want of work had assumed very serious dimensions and distress had already set in, you will have the goodness to draw the attention of the administrations of the districts and communes under your authority to the above-mentioned measures which are incumbent on you and them as employers of labour.

"So far as you yourself or the official bodies and functionaries subordinate to you have to determine, or are called upon to co-operate in determining the allotment of services or works, you will also take care that due attention be paid to the above-mentioned considerations.

"Finally, you will have the goodness to take care that you are informed, as soon as possible, of all occurrences and circumstances which afford ground for inferences as to the probable development of the labour market in your district, especially of approaching considerable diminutions and increases of industrial activity, in order that you may be able, when occasion offers, to direct the attention of superintendents of public works and administrative undertakings, and of the Labour Exchanges, where such employment agencies are in operation, to the situation, and when necessary, to use your official influence in favour of the timely introduction of special measures appropriate to that situation."

The nature of the work done either as reserve or as relief work (as the case may be) varies in different years, but mainly consists of work in connection with the maintenance and the improvement of the docks (on the Rhine), which is carried out (under contractors) by navvies and similar labourers; of the levelling of the disused ramparts of the town (partly under contractors, partly by labour employed directly by the Municipality); of road and path making in the Municipal forests (done by men directly employed by the city),* and of stone-breaking (done under contractors).* In all cases only such men are employed on distress work as apply personally to the director of the Labour Exchange and prove that their industrial character is good, that they have been resident in Strassburg for at least one year, and that they have exhausted all other means of obtaining work. In every instance the duration of his employment on each occasion on which he has obtained work, and the frequency of change of employers is shown by the man's official Employment Card (under the Insurance Laws); and in many cases the facts will be known through the reports which employers are expected to send in to the Exchange when a man leaves their service; in addition, where necessary, the statements made by an applicant for distress work are tested by the Exchange by inquiries addressed to the employers for whom the man worked in the summer months. If his last discharge is shown to have taken place by reason of some fault committed by the workman, or if he left his employment of his own motive and without being discharged, then he will not be passed as a suitable candidate for distress work of any kind. The question of such suitability is also made the subject of careful investigation by two special officers, appointed to serve for the winter of each year and termed "Inspectors of Workmen." Both of these inspectors are working-men; one is always a member of a Social Democrat, one of a Christian Trade Union; each receives pay at the rate of 4s. a day.†

Nature of work performed.

With respect to the rates of wages paid to persons employed on the relief works (proper), these men are divided into classes, this classification being made by the director of the Labour Exchange personally,‡ and receive:—

		Per day.	
		s.	d.
Class I.—If single men or widows without children	- - - -	2	2½
Class II.—If single men or widows with children dependent on them or having parents to support or married couples with no children	- - - -	2	6
Class III.—If married with not more than five children dependent on them	- - - - - - - - - -	2	8½
Class IV.—If married with more than five children dependent on them	- - - - - - - - - -	2	10¾

* Although counted by the Strassburg authorities as "reserve work," it is doubtful whether the work in the forests can properly be so termed; for this work can *only* be carried out in winter time. The stone-breaking is given out as *Poor Law* relief.

† In some cases deceit is practised by applicants for distress work, *e.g.*, a man will say that he is married when he is not, and that he has five or six children when he has none. In all cases in which a man is proved to be untruthful or to work irregularly (of his own choice), or to be a drunkard, his application is refused.

‡ In regard to this classification the following points are of interest. If a man lives with a woman to whom he is not married, but whom he supports, this woman counts for the purposes of this classification as his wife, though in all such cases the Labour Exchange sends an official to visit the couple and try to persuade them to get married; so, also, children born out of wedlock (of whom there are many at Strassburg) are treated in the same way as if of legitimate birth.

With regard to these rates of wages it is to be remarked, that the highest rate (Class IV.) is identical with the lowest current rate paid at Strassburg for the least efficient labour of the lowest class* and much below the Trade Union and generally recognised rate for, *e.g.*, day labourers. It is obvious, that the men who apply for relief work at Strassburg (of whom, as the Committee were informed, the great majority—usually about 65 per cent. are members of Trade Unions) are free from any inducement, to prefer this form of employment to others, and are unlikely not to avail themselves of the earliest possible opportunity of finding work under normal conditions in the ordinary labour market.

Hours of labour. The men work from seven to eight hours a day (according to the state of the weather), and are employed six days a week.

Number of men employed on distress work in successive years. With regard to the questions, how many men apply for relief work, winter after winter in successive years, and to what trades such men belong, the Committee found that no statistics were available; but the director of the Labour Exchange stated, that from 10 to 15 per cent. of the men put on relief works last year had been employed on similar work in the two preceding winters. The director informed the Committee, that, if a man became unemployed in several winters in succession (as, he said, might easily happen to, *e.g.*, a bricklayer), the Strassburg authorities would not consider this to be a reason for refusing to put him on to relief work.

Occupations of men employed. Among the different occupations, it is the men in the building trades who are most frequently compelled to take employment on relief works; and as between the different age classes, into which the men on relief works are divided, it is those in the class between twenty and thirty years and between fifty and sixty, who are mostly to be found, so employed, these begin the first to be discharged by their employers when the seasonal depression begins to be felt.

Manner of dealing with rejected applicants. So far we have been speaking of the men who are successful in their application for relief work; as to those, to whom this form of assistance is refused, these men may be divided into two classes—those who are ineligible because they have not lived for at least twelve months at Strassburg, and those who, after investigation in the manner above described, are held to be unworthy to receive this assistance. With regard to the non-Strassburgers, the Committee were informed that “no one troubles himself about them”; if necessary, the police can compel these men to return to their respective places of settlement.

As to the ineligible Strassburger, when his application is refused, the director of the Labour Exchange telephones to the Poor Law Office: “I have rejected the application for relief work made by Hermann Schmidt,” and thenceforth the matter is in the hands of the Poor Law authorities, whose method of dealing with it will now be described.

Poor Law Relief Work.

Co-operation between Poor Law Office and Exchange. The Poor Law Office at Strassburg works in the closest possible connection with the Labour Exchange, which is situated in the same block of buildings and is connected with it by telephone. All persons, who apply for Poor Law relief on the ground of unemployment, are sent across to the Labour Exchange for their case to be there investigated and reported on. On the other hand, when a man applies to the Labour Exchange to find him employment, and that office is unable to do so, it reports to the Poor Law Department that “Hermann Schmidt, who was on January 8th, 1908, referred to the Municipal Labour Exchange, was on January 9th, 1908, registered as an applicant for employment, and has since then made a similar application on three occasions.” Then follows the result of the man’s applications:—

I.—This man was engaged on January 13th, 1908, by the Lion Brewery Company, Limited, on a temporary [or permanent] engagement as yardman; or

II.—It was not found possible to secure for this man employment suited to his capacity; or

III.—This man has refused the employment offered to him as yardman with the Lion Brewery Company, Limited.

* *I.e.*, for casual unskilled day labourers of less than average value as workmen. The Trade Union rate at Strassburg (which is also the current rate, whether for organised or unorganised day labourers) is 4s. 2½d. per day. This is the “fair wages” of an efficient labourer, the current rate for the relatively inefficient men being that referred to above (2s. 10¾d.). The only Strassburg employer paying a lower rate than this is (as the Committee were told), the tramway company, which pays about 1½d. per day less.

The above entries are made in appropriate blank spaces ; but in certain cases the left hand corner of the form of report is used for pertinent remarks, *e.g.*, " loafer."

Since the Labour Exchange, which keeps an " individual " card register of all its clients, is in a position to know all that there is to be known about their industrial antecedents, the great value of the information as to the industrial character of applicants for relief, which they give to the officials charged with the administration of the Poor Law, will be obvious.

As has been explained above, it is not every applicant for ordinary (non-disenfranchising) relief work whose application is granted ; in fact, the applicants, whose request is refused, form about 10 per cent. of the whole number (in earlier years 15 to 20 per cent.). The number of persons thus " referred to the Poor Law " tends steadily to diminish ; for the penalty of disenfranchisement, which the receipt of Poor Law relief (including Poor Law relief work) entails, is greatly dreaded, and a man especially if he be a member either of a Social Democrat or a Christian Trade Union, to whom this misfortune has once occurred, will spare no pains to avoid its recurrence in the future.

Speaking generally of the class of men " referred to the Poor Law," the director of the Labour Exchange informed the Committee that these were people, who either drank hard, or who were shown to work irregularly in summer, when they might, if they chose, have obtained constant employment, or who were addicted to " play Monday," or who left their employment without being discharged by their employer, or because they were discharged by him for some fault, or who gave false information about themselves to the officials of the Labour Exchange, or who were, by reason of other misconduct (compare *ante*, p. 63), excluded from that office.*

It must be understood, that at Strassburg, however bad the industrial character of an applicant may be, and even if he is not destitute, † yet if he is, or is soon likely to be unable to provide for his needs and those of his family, he will receive the assistance of the Poor Law—assistance which, except so far as concerns the small amount of relief work provided by the Poor Law in the worst months of winter, consists exclusively of (*outdoor*) relief in cash or in kind given without exacting the performance of work of any kind. Even if a man declines to accept employment offered to him by the Labour Exchange, or is of so degraded an industrial character that the Labour Exchange refuses to offer him to an employer, although, as a rule (the Committee were informed), such a man does not himself receive anything from the Poor Law, the Poor Law authorities still provide for the needs of his family, in some cases by giving money relief to his wife, frequently by giving her food tickets (available at the " People's Kitchen "). If, again, his rent has got into arrear, the Poor Law, in its own interest, finds itself compelled to clear off the arrears ; otherwise the family will be evicted ; and then the police authorities will call upon the Poor Law authorities to find a dwelling for these " homeless poor."

Nor at Strassburg is any objection entertained to giving relief to able-bodied men, who indeed form about 60 per cent.‡ of the total number of persons in receipt of " temporary allowances."

While, as has been explained, except in winter, all Poor Law relief is at Strassburg given without the exaction of the performance of labour, the relief given as " wages " to the men employed on the winter relief works, and which (unless there is a sufficient amount of work available to provide for both classes) is reserved for married, to the exclusion of single men, is fixed on a scale adequate to meet the existing needs of these people

* In 1907, seventy-eight workpeople were thus excluded, either for not going to work after accepting jobs, or for outrageous behaviour towards the Exchange officials. In the same year two employers were similarly excluded, because they, after agreeing to pay a certain rate of wages, afterwards declined to fulfil this agreement.

† The secretary of the Strassburg Poor Law Office was asked by this Committee what would be the action of the Poor Law if a man, who applied for relief, was found to possess means. His answer was that relief would be granted, if (and only if) it was considered to be improbable that this man would, except after the expiration of a lengthy period, be able to earn by his work ; for example, suppose that a man had £10 in the Savings Bank, but was likely to be for a long time too ill to work, in such a case they would treat the £10 as a nest-egg available for special needs, *e.g.*, funeral expenses, and would grant him relief. But an able-bodied man who possesses money would never be granted relief. As to the method adopted for discovering whether applicants for relief possess means, this is difficult, but they do the best they can, employing for this purpose four superior officials (on the staff of the secretary's office) at a salary of £114 per year, rising to £186 ; these officers rank as " second-class secretaries."

‡ This is the estimate made by the Secretary of the Strassburg Poor Law Office, who informed the Committee that no recent statistics on this point were available.

(varying with the number of the man's dependants) but so as in every case always to fall below the lowest current wages for inefficient labour of the most inferior class (2s. 10 $\frac{3}{4}$ d. per day, *see ante*, p. 68, note).

As to whether these "wages" shall be paid in cash, or in kind (bread, groceries, free meals at the "People's Kitchen," payment of the man's rent), each case is decided on its merits, cash being paid in most cases, but not in those in which the men are known to be spendthrifts.

Cost of relief.

In conclusion, it remains only to state that the total cost to the Municipality of Strassburg of relief work (reserve, ordinary, and Poor Law) has been in a year of bad trade (1902-3) slightly over £4,000, and in a year of good trade (1903-4) about one-half of that amount.

INSURANCE AGAINST UNEMPLOYMENT.

Tendency of system to diminish number of applicants for winter relief.

Passing now from the functions performed by the Strassburg Labour Exchange in relation to the organisation of winter relief work, it appears to be highly probable that a material diminution in the number of applicants for this form of assistance may be expected from the development of the novel system, also operated with the zealous help of the Labour Exchange, under which workmen affected by seasonal lack of work are enabled, without the necessity of applying for relief work of any kind,* to provide for their necessities when their power to earn wages has temporarily ceased—the system of insurance against unemployment.

For the purposes of the present Report the system of unemployment insurance at Strassburg has in one direction comparatively small, but in another direction very great, importance. On the one hand, the system is so new (having only been introduced on January 1st, 1907) that the period covered by it does not include even one whole winter, and for this reason there is as yet practically nothing to be learned from its operation; on the other hand, just because it is new and can be assumed to have incorporated in its organisation all such improvements as the working of similar insurance funds in Germany, Belgium and other countries may have shown to be desirable, this Strassburg scheme possesses a very high degree of interest.

Under these circumstances it has seemed best, while placing at the disposal of the reader a full translation of the rules of this insurance scheme and of the First Annual Report of its operations (*see* Appendix D, *post*, pp. 110-120) to leave these to speak in the main for themselves, but little being added in this place to the text of these two most interesting documents.

Nature of system.

The Strassburg system (as will be seen) is based upon the application of an annual grant by the Municipality (250 in 1907) towards the payment of supplements increasing the amount of unemployed pay which the members of the Trade Unions affiliated to the fund shall become entitled to receive from those organisations; and it is to be noted that the whole of the twenty-four Strassburg Trade Unions, whose rules provide for the payment of unemployed benefit, have joined the Municipal Insurance Fund. It is further to be remarked that no one of these Trade Unions is an organisation composed of unskilled labourers, and that it is the opinion of the authorities administering this insurance fund that workman of this class can never be included within the operation of any scheme which is not of a compulsory nature (that is to say, providing that compulsory contributions, by way of premium, shall be levied from employers and employed sufficient in amount, when supplemented by the Municipality and the State—both the Provincial and the Federal Government, since any workable system must of necessity be *inter-local*—adequately to cover the very heavy risk of unemployment which exists in the case of unskilled labour).

Cost of Exchange.

In concluding this account of the manifold activities of the Strassburg Labour Exchange, it should be stated that its operations cost the ratepayers in 1907, for salaries of staff and office expenses, a net amount (after deduction of £114 received from employers of domestic servants as registration fees) of no more than £587.

The committee desire to express their very best thanks to the director of the Labour Exchange (Herr Friedrich) for the very great pains taken by him in giving them so much valuable information in relation to the working of this office.

* Workmen, who are insured with the Municipal Unemployment Insurance Fund, are neither expected to accept, nor do such men, in fact, accept, any form of relief work.

SWITZERLAND.

Although the main object of the Committee in visiting Switzerland was to inspect the working of its Farm Labour Colonies, the organisation of which will shortly be described, they took advantage of the opportunity to visit the Municipal Labour Exchange at Berne (where the working both of the Employment Registry and of the Unemployment Insurance Fund organised in connection with the Exchange was examined) and the farm workhouse maintained by the Municipal Authorities at a short distance from that town; and a very brief account of the two institutions just mentioned will now be given.

BERNE: MUNICIPAL LABOUR EXCHANGE.

The Municipal Labour Exchange at Berne was established in 1889, and the scale of its operations, which are carried on free of cost to applicants for employment, while a moderate fee is charged to employers, will best be explained by the figures which follow * :—

Operations of Labour Exchange.

MALES.

Year.	Number of Applicants for Employment.	Number of Employees Applied for.	Number of Engagements Effected.
1901	3,159	2,719	2,081
1902	2,863	2,161	1,609
1903	9,572	3,390	2,576
1904	9,177	4,796	3,256
1905	10,574	6,410	4,289
1906	12,063	7,640	5,636
1907	10,367	8,165	5,653

FEMALES.

1901	1,970	2,894	1,396
1902	2,072	2,894	1,518
1903	2,229	3,334	1,802
1904	2,483	3,977	2,030
1905	2,787	4,578	2,293
1906	3,446	5,609	2,729
1907	4,079	6,014	3,019

It will be seen that in 1907 there were in the case of males 127 applicants for every 100 employees asked for by employers, while in the case of females supply and demand were nearly equal, there being only 101·9 applicants for every 100 situations offered, practically the whole of these being situations in different branches of domestic service.

The Exchange is managed by a committee, three of whose members are appointed by the Municipal Council, three by the Berne employers, and three by the working men of that town, with two sub-committees, each composed of three members, one to direct the operations of the employment register, the other to manage the Unemployment Insurance Fund; the director of the Exchange attends all meetings in a consultative capacity.

The Labour Exchange is open to the use both of Trade Unionists and of non-unionists. A few of the Berne Trade Unions (those of the engineers, the bootmakers, and the hairdressers) have transferred their own employment registries to the Municipal Exchange, and most of the leaders of the Trade Unions (as the Committee were informed) regard the operations of the Exchange with favour; some members of

* The population of Berne (which is not an industrial city) is 75,000.

Trade Unions, however, consider, the Exchange as being instituted in the interests of the employing classes. On the whole the attitude of the Trade Unions to the Exchange may (as the Committee were told) be described as apathetic.*

All the departments of the Berne Municipality are directed to apply for any labour that they may require in the first instance to the Labour Exchange.

Co-operation with other Exchanges.

The Exchange works in connection with all the other Public Labour Exchanges in Switzerland (at Freiburg, St. Gallen, Biel, Schaffhausen, Geneva, Basle, and Zürich), that at Zürich acting as the central clearing-house. Men sent to a distance are allowed to travel on the railways at half-fares; and in special cases the cantonal authorities provide men of good character, who are without means to pay, with free tickets.

Men, for whom the Exchange finds itself unable to secure employment, are unofficially advised to go to the Poor Law; if the man is in actual want of food, the Exchange officials direct him to go to one of the Travellers' Relief Stations—shelters for workmen on tramp maintained all over Switzerland by the cantonal authorities, where he will be kept for one day and provided with food, free of charge, and without being required to perform any work in return for this hospitality. All these Relief Stations act also as Labour Registries; but this Committee were informed that, so far as concerns the Canton of Berne, their action in this direction is not very efficient.

Preference given to men insured against unemployment.

As between two men of equal industrial efficiency, the authorities in charge of the Labour Exchange always give the first chance of employment to a man who is insured with the Municipal Unemployed Insurance Fund, the working of which will now be described.

INSURANCE AGAINST UNEMPLOYMENT.

Working of, and benefits under scheme.

The Berne Unemployment Insurance Fund has been in operation since 1893. Under this scheme a man, who has for eight months paid his contributions (6 $\frac{3}{4}$ d. a month) to the Fund and can show that he has been in continuous employment for at least six months in the year can claim a daily allowance if he falls out of work owing to winter slackness of trade. The amount of this allowance, in case the means at the disposal of this fund suffice for the payment of the *maximum* benefits, is during the first thirty days † of unemployment 1s. 7 $\frac{1}{4}$ d. per day in the case of married men, and in the case of men with no dependants 1s. 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. per day, and during any further period of unemployment 1s. 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. for married men and 7 $\frac{3}{4}$ d. per day for single men.

Income of Fund.

The income of the Unemployment Insurance Fund consists of the premiums paid by the insured, contributions paid by employers, donations from charitable individuals, an annual subvention granted by the Municipality, and the interest received on its invested capital. With respect to the amount of the Municipal subvention, this was on the inception of the Fund, £200, but has since been from time to time augmented, and has for some years past been fixed at £480 per annum.

The rules of the Fund provide that "Any Swiss citizen resident, permanently or temporarily, in Berne, who is capable of performing labour and is not over 60 years of age, can become a member of the Unemployment Insurance Fund," but in practice an exception is made in the case of a class, whose occupation is of a very casual nature and who are not distinguished for their love of work—the wood-choppers, whom, on these grounds, the Managing Committee decline to allow to become members of the Fund.‡

* The master painters and journeymen painters of Berne have recently started a labour registry of their own, but the Municipal Exchange does not intend to give up admitting painters to its register.

† Formerly this allowance became payable only after the man had been out of work for one week, but this was altered by the Municipal Council in November, 1907 (a change which increased the amount of the allowances paid in 1907–8 by about £80).

‡ Up to 1900 the Rules of the Fund contained no age-limit as to membership; up to 1903 the employees of the Berne Municipality were *required* to insure themselves with the fund; but at their request this obligation was abolished. Few of the municipal workmen are now insured.

The following figures will serve to show the experience of the Fund with respect to the degree in which its members have suffered from seasonal unemployment:—

Number of members who became unemployed.

Year.	Total Number of Insured.	Number of Insured who became Unemployed.	Percentage of Insured who became Unemployed.
			Per cent.
1901	644	248	38
1902	719	292	41
1903	598	297	50
1904	593	305	51
1905	614	234	38
1906	571	239	42
1907	508	233	46

The great majority of the members of the Fund, who, each winter, fall out of employment, are men (especially navvies and other labourers) employed in the building trades. Thus, the labourers just referred to formed, in 1907, 60 per cent. of the unemployed members (62½ per cent. in 1906 ; 64 per cent. in 1905).*

As between different ages, it is to be remarked, that in 1907, those between thirty and forty years formed 23 per cent. of the total number of unemployed, those between forty and fifty, 26 per cent., those between fifty and sixty, 28, and those over sixty, 9·7 per cent.

It is to be observed, that one of the Regulations of the Unemployment Insurance Fund provides, that “It shall be the duty of the authorities administering this Fund, whenever slackness of work begins to manifest itself, to endeavour, in connection with the Municipal authorities, to find work for the unemployed. For this purpose the Municipal administration will, so far as in any way possible, give out to be done in winter by members of the Fund, who may be unemployed, work, the execution on which it may be practicable to defer.”

The financial position of the Berne Unemployment Insurance Fund is shown by its balance-sheet for 1907-8, a translation of which is subjoined.

Financial position of Fund.

RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURE IN 1907-8.

Receipts.				Expenditure.			
	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.
Contributions of insured - - -	157	1	7½	Unemployed pay† - - -	492	2	6¾
Contributions of employers - - -	41	10	5¾	Office expenses and printing - - -	5	9	10
Donations - - -	3	0	0	Heating of waiting room - - -	9	18	9½
Subvention from Municipality - - -	480	0	0	Contributions repaid - - -	0	5	0½
Sale of securities - - -	399	16	0	Securities purchased - - -	636	14	4½
Interest on securities - - -	63	2	6¼				
Total - - -	£1,144	10	7¼	Total - - -	£1,144	10	7¼

Capital of fund on March 31st, 1908, £1,792.

KÜHLEWYL POORHOUSE.

The poorhouse of the City of Berne at Kühlewyl is situated on the top of a high wooded hill above Kehrsatz, a railway station reached by a journey of about twenty minutes by train from Berne. It is an extensive institution, founded in 1890, in which, at the time of the Committee’s visit, were housed 361 inmates, and which has at its disposal an estate comprising a little over 160 acres of agricultural, and about 62 acres of forest land, as well as a hut on the mountains for use in connection with the summer pasturage.

Situation, accommodation, and area.

* A man, who refuses several successive offers of employment, is expelled from membership. This, however, is of very rare occurrence. In any case, if he refuses employment except for a good reason, he receives no unemployed pay. But in no case is a skilled workman asked to do such work as, e.g., street cleaning.

† This was in 1907-8 paid at the full maximum rate specified above (ante, p. 72).

Persons admitted. All the inmates are poor persons sent here (without judicial sentence) by administrative order of the Municipal authorities of Berne.

Classification of inmates. They are classified under six heads, those comprised in the first class being alone allowed to take their discharge as and when they choose.

The sixty-three persons admitted in 1907 were distributed between the different classes in the following manner :—

1. Convalescents (from hospitals, etc.)	-	-	-	-	9
2. Sick and aged persons	-	-	-	-	23
3. Idiots	-	-	-	-	6
4. Lunatics	-	-	-	-	2
5. Unemployed	-	-	-	-	3
6. Sentenced for misconduct	-	-	-	-	20
Total					63

As to Class 2, such persons are allowed to leave, if the municipal authorities are satisfied that in future these people will be maintained in a proper manner by their relatives.

Class 5—the “unemployed”—are in all cases persons whose unemployment is due to their own fault—drunkards and loafers, etc. These people, of whom three out of four are men, are allowed to take their discharge if the authorities are satisfied that they have obtained employment. The usual period of detention for this class is one year.

Class 6 (two-thirds females, one-third males) is mainly composed of prostitutes, but also comprises individuals, who, as Herr Pulfer, the Director of this poorhouse, said, are persons with whom it is impossible to live (*e.g.*, incorrigible street fighters and brawlers). The men and women in Class 6 are allowed to leave Kühlewyl, if and when the Municipal Authorities are satisfied that they are reformed characters. Here again the usual period of detention is one year. But the reformation of these people is in many cases merely skin-deep; and one in three is sooner or later brought back to Kühlewyl to undergo a longer detention. Out of the whole number of persons comprised in Classes 5 and 6, three out of four are stated to have been inmates of one or other of the two Berne prisons at Witzwyl and St. Johannsen (afterwards described).

Period of detention.

It will be understood that, while the usual length of stay is as above stated, the order authorising detention at this poorhouse is in every case indeterminate. Figures showing the actual number of years during which the stay of the 361 inmates of this poorhouse on August 26th, 1908, had extended, have been kindly furnished by the Director, and are as follows :—

NUMBER OF INMATES, WHO ON AUGUST 26, 1908, HAD BEEN AT KÜHLEWYL DURING THE NUMBER OF YEARS STATED IN THE 1ST COLUMN.

Years.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Years.	Male.	Female.	Total.
1	43	24	67	10	5	4	9
2	21	9	30	11	6	4	10
3	10	9	19	12	7	5	12
4	11	9	20	13	6	7	13
5	10	10	20	14	8	5	13
6	7	5	12	15	9	4	13
7	9	7	16	16	26	31	57
8	6	6	12	17	5	6	11
9	7	8	15	18	8	4	12
Grand Total - - -							361

The Director states, that inmates with a stay of one or two years are mainly loafers, prostitutes, etc. (Classes 5 and 6), while those with a stay of three years or more mostly belong to the other four categories above described.

There did not appear to be any separation of one class from another, the feeble-minded being mixed with the sane, criminals with invalids, and so on.

The inmates seem not all infrequently to run away, for the Report for 1907 of the institution classes twelve "discharges" as "escaped and cannot be traced."

The employment provided for the inmates (mainly agricultural) is not remunerated by wages, but occasional gifts of money on no fixed scale are made to the inmates. Subject to their good behaviour, they (including Class 6) are granted leave on alternate Sundays (men one week, women the other) and also on from three to fourteen other days in each year. In some cases they return drunk; and, if so, their Sundays out are stopped for a time.

Occupations and leave of inmates.

FORCED LABOUR FARM AT WITZWYL.

The Cantonal authorities of Berne determined some twenty years ago to transfer from Berne to the country persons convicted of offences punishable by detention, and for that purpose purchased at a cost of £29,710 an estate of about 1,976 acres, on which, in 1895, the Forced Labour Farm, which will now be described, was established. The land was originally a "moss," somewhat like the well-known Chat Moss in Lancashire (which in 1793-1800 was the scene of the first great and successful efforts made in England for the reclaiming of bogs and in 1829 gave so much trouble to George Stephenson when that engineer was directing the construction of the railway from Manchester to Liverpool), but which was even more difficult to reclaim because it was exposed to floods of the most disastrous character—floods with which the Cantonal authorities of Berne, Fribourg, Vaud, Neuchâtel, and Soleure from 1758 onwards for some eighty years strove in vain to cope. Then the work was taken in hand by a joint-stock company, to which ultimately large subventions were granted by the Federal Government and by all of the five cantons just named except Soleure; and after twenty years' labour was successfully accomplished.

When the Cantonal Government took over the estate, all of it except about 150 acres was in a very poor state indeed; the soil was exhausted; the buildings were in ruins. To-day this estate is in fine condition, the buildings on it, which have been largely added to, are in an excellent state of repair; and the area of the farm has been increased so that it extends now to 2,471 acres.

Present condition of colony.

These notable results have been achieved under the direction of Herr Otto Kellerhals who (under the general supervision of the Prison Commission of the Canton of Berne, which, however, leaves him a perfectly free hand) has administered this penal establishment from its foundation up to the present day. The great trouble taken by Herr Kellerhals in replying to all the numerous questions in regard to the working of the institutions under his management (including the Free Colony of Tannenhof, which, after being for many years under separate direction, has been placed under the superintendence of the Director of Witzwyl) lays this Committee under a great debt of obligation to this gentleman, of which they wish to express their grateful recognition.

Administration of colony.

Witzwyl may be described as a large and (as will be seen) a flourishing agricultural estate, in the working of which prison labour plays a preponderant, although by no means an exclusive, part.

The facts in this respect will best be seen from a description of the various kinds of labour employed at Witzwyl.

The staff consists of the Director and of forty-four other persons, including foremen in each of the branches of industry carried on, and gangers (seventeen in number for the gangs of convicts working in the fields) who are "leading hands," not merely supervising, but themselves taking part in the work carried on by the convicts. In addition there are in the first place from ten to twenty-five "colonists," that is to say, men who, after serving their sentence, stop on at Witzwyl as free labourers; in the next place from fifty to sixty young Polish women employed in the spring and summer months for the cultivation of sugar beet (a class of work that the native Swiss cannot be induced to undertake); and most of the turf-cutting that is done in summer (about 74 acres being at present worked as turf-beds) is done by ordinary

Population of colony.

agricultural labourers employed because at that time there is so much work of other kinds to do that none of the regular labour at the disposal of the Director can be spared for this turf getting.

Accommodation.

Coming now to the bulk of the population of Witzwyl, the inmates of the prison, all of whom are detained there by judicial order, we find that, while there is at present accommodation for 200 convicts (about to be enlarged to 250), the actual number of the prisoners varies between about 150 (149 on September 14th, 1907) to about 170 (171 on March 18th, 1907).

Classes of persons sent to colony.

The different classes of persons sent to Witzwyl (none of them for a shorter period than two months) are :—

(1) Those sentenced by the tribunals of the Canton of Berne (for theft, assault, arson, homicide, offences against morality, etc.) to detention in a criminal or correctional establishment for periods not exceeding three years (but men, who are likely to try to escape, more particularly men who are not Swiss subjects, are not allowed to be sent to Witzwyl).

(2) Those sentenced to “simple imprisonment” (this imprisonment, mainly inflicted in the case of duellists, carries with it no loss of honour).

(3) Those sentenced (up to three years) by military Courts.

(4) Those sentenced by a judge to “workhouse” detention as persons who refuse to support their dependants, or as being vagrants, or “work-shy”; and

(5) Prisoners (convicted for similar offences) who are “boarded-out” here by the Cantons of Geneva and Neuchâtel (under agreement with the Berne Government).

Number undergoing “workhouse” detention.

Taking the 262 prisoners, who were admitted to Witzwyl in the course of the year 1907, we may note that, excluding the twenty-two persons boarded out by Geneva, and the nineteen Neuchâtel boarders (as to whom no such particulars are given) no less than ninety-one of them are classified as undergoing “workhouse” detention (as loafers and vagrants).

Number of recidivists.

Out of the whole 262, 170 are entered as first offenders, while 92 are put down as “recidivists.” As to the first offenders, it may be remarked that no separation of such persons from the other convicts is practised at Witzwyl. As to the recidivists, the Witzwyl Report for 1907 observes that these 92 individuals were in practically every case of the loafer and vagrant class, and that several of them were admitted to Witzwyl in 1907, were discharged, and had to be sent there again before the close of that year.

As to the evidence on which convictions for loafing and vagrancy take place, the Director informed the Committee that the Mayor of the Commune, in which a man lives, is always the important witness, but the evidence of the police is also tendered if required.

Prosecution for non-support of dependants.

The duty of prosecuting a loafer for non-support of his dependants is undertaken by the Communal authorities, from whom these dependants receive assistance necessitated by the man’s default. If he pleads illness, then medical evidence is taken; if he alleges that he is unable to obtain employment, and if the Communal authorities inform him of a vacant situation which he refuses to take up, then he is sent to Witzwyl to undergo “workhouse” detention.

Support of dependants.

While he is at Witzwyl, if the man’s wife write to the Witzwyl authorities to say that she is starving, they, in many cases (though it is not incumbent on them to do so), make inquiry through the priest of the parish, and if the case is genuine, send her food from the prison stores. The cost amounts to about £40 per annum.

Conjugal condition of men admitted.

It may be mentioned that of the 262 men admitted at Witzwyl in 1907, 166 are stated to have been single, 67 married and living with their wives, 18 divorced, and 11 widowers.

Occupations.

All of the 262 are entered in the report of the institution as “without means.” They belonged to a great variety of trades, only one class of occupation, however, containing more than twenty-five members; this was that of “labourers (agricultural, builders’, and day) and navvies” which comprised 120 individuals.

Ages.

No statistics with regard to the ages of the persons admitted to Witzwyl are available.

Out of the total of 262 inmates discharged in 1907, 200 had served their full sentences, while in forty-nine cases some part of the sentence had, as is here frequently done, been remitted by the Cantonal Authorities acting on proposals made to them by the Director (the remaining 13 having been removed by transfer, death, or escape, or in consequence of a fresh judicial enquiry). Allowing for such remissions, the average time served by the prisoners at Witzwyl (as the Committee were informed) is, for all classes together, fourteen months; for the loafers and vagrants, eight months. The Director declared that if one compared (a) different districts, and (b) different magistrates, one would find a practical uniformity of punishment prevailing for similar offences.

As to the term for which the inmates admitted in 1907 were sent to Witzwyl, this was in 144 cases, six months or less; in 79, over six and up to twelve months; in 30, over one year and up to two years; in 9, over two years.

There were in 1907 two unsuccessful and six successful attempts to escape from Witzwyl. Three of the men referred to got away from their keepers in a November fog, and escaped into France. They had not been brought back at the end of the year. Two others were still on the "wanted" list of the police. One was quickly brought back. All the men sent to Witzwyl are registered under the Bertillon system, either before they come or after they get there, and most of the escaped prisoners are sooner or later brought back by the police, to whom the Director telephones at once when an inmate gets away. Not long ago, however, a man, who escaped from Witzwyl, managed to avoid recapture for a long time, living undisturbed at Thun for a whole year, and being employed there as a painter. Some of these escaped prisoners enlist in the French Foreign Legion; there have been cases in which such men, after serving for five years in Tonkin, have come back to Witzwyl, and asked to be allowed to finish their sentences there.

When recaptured and brought back to Witzwyl, the man (without being brought before any tribunal) is ordered by the prison authorities to receive special punishment, working for a week or so in his cell, and being put on bread and water diet.

All inmates, who have been sentenced to short periods of detention (up to six months), sleep in separate cells, meeting only to hear sermons or receive instruction at school. If inmates stay on after six months and behave well, they are allowed to sleep in ordinary houses on the prison estate.

The work done by the prisoners at Witzwyl is mainly agricultural, the men working in gangs, each gang comprising ten to twelve men, and being under the superintendence of two gangers who, as explained above, work alongside the men under their care. These gangers are selected by the Director on the ground of their industrial capability, in the first place, but are in all cases required to produce from the Communal authorities of their village a certificate of moral character. Four of these gangers, however, are men who were formerly prisoners at Witzwyl, and who by reason of their excellent conduct have been entrusted with these responsible duties.

In addition to work on the land, cheese-making is carried on upon a large scale, and (as already explained) a considerable quantity of turf is dug and prepared for market, and (in winter) the manufacture of cement drain-pipes is carried on. In addition, there is always a great deal of work going on to supply the needs of the colony itself, including carpentering, joinery, blacksmiths' work, tailoring and shoemaking, as well as repairs to the roads and buildings; and from time to time work has been carried out upon an extensive scale in connection with the additional buildings of various kinds, which have been provided for the use of the colony, with the colony's water supply, etc. There appears, in short, to be no difficulty in finding plenty of work for the inmates.

When an inmate is admitted, he is at first placed in one of the agricultural gangs, where he is kept under close observation; for, as above explained, while each gang is composed of from ten to twelve men, each of these small groups is supervised by two gangers. These gangers take the place of ordinary warders. In fact, there is only one prison warder of the usual type (*i.e.*, armed) at Witzwyl. After the new inmate has been for some time working on the land, if his conduct has been good, the Director asks him what kind of work he would like to do, and, so far as possible, his wishes are complied with. But, of course, if a man says that he wants to do watch-making, a branch of industry not carried on at Witzwyl, his desire cannot be granted and he would be set to work on the land.

Remuneration of inmates.

With regard to the remuneration of labour at Witzwyl, the foremen receive from £3 4s. to £4 16s. per month, the gangers from £2 8s. to £3 4s. per month, free lodging and an annual gift of £2 8s.; the "colonists" receive the usual agricultural wages of the district—from £1 4s. to £2 per month in addition to free board and lodging; the Polish girls work on piece-work and earn (in cash and kind) a little over 3s. a day.

As to the convicts, these men receive (in addition to the value of their clothing, including what is given them on their discharge) from 1s. 7½d. to 4s. per month (time-wages varying with conduct and output). The whole of what an inmate earns is banked for him; and he is credited in addition with a gift, which may be as much as 1s. 7½d. per month, and when he is discharged he gets only enough cash to pay his fare (at half-price on the Swiss railways), in any case not more than 8s. As to any balance to his credit, the Director sends this money to be taken care of either to the priest of the man's parish, or to a judge in his district who is good enough to look after him, or to his relations if worthy of confidence.

Daily routine.

The daily routine at this farm prison is thus described:—

Work begins in summer at 5.30 a.m., in winter about 6 a.m. The prisoners with their keepers (gangers, etc.) go to the large corridors of the central prison to have their food handed out to them and then go forth to their work. In winter work is carried on until night falls, either in the central prison or in the barns, etc. the men working so far as necessary by artificial light. At 9 a.m. and 4 p.m. there is a rest of 20 minutes, when the inmates eat their bread, to which, if the work that they are doing is of a severe nature, coffee with milk or tea or lemonade is added. At 11.30 a.m. the inmates come back for dinner, which each man gets handed out to him and then takes to and eats in his cell, receiving at the same time a ration of bread for his "afternoon tea." He is locked in his cell until 12.30 p.m., when he goes back to his work. But if men are working far away from the central buildings, their food is sent out to them. At 7 p.m. in summer or at nightfall in winter the inmates come back for their supper of soup, prepare, if necessary, their vegetables for the meals of the next day and then go to their cells. Those, who are engaged in one or other of the industrial occupations carried on at Witzwyl, also cease work at 7 p.m.

Food of inmates.

The dietary is as follows: Morning meal—coffee with milk, potatoes, and bread; mid-day meal—usually soup and vegetables, to which on two days in the week meat is added, or else a farinaceous dish with which is served a salad; evening meal—soup, with which occasionally uncooked fruit is served; fruit is also (so far as the available supply permits) occasionally served out with the Sunday dinners.

The daily bread ration served out to each man weighs from 700 to 850 grammes (1.54 lbs. to 1.88 lbs.). The other articles of the dietary are served out *ad lib.*

Education.

The education of the inmates is provided for by classes held in winter and in which instruction is given in reading and writing, both in French and German; nor are their spiritual needs neglected, for three clergymen living in the neighbouring village attend regularly to the moral education of the convicts, visiting each man individually in his cell. The lay instructor also gives special lessons dealing with ethical subjects.*

Discharged prisoners kept under observation.

A few of the discharged prisoners obtain leave to stay on and work (at current wages) at Witzwyl; few of these cases occur in summer, about twenty in winter. With respect to the great majority (who on being discharged leave Witzwyl) the ex-prisoner is not altogether lost sight of; for the prison authorities ask some responsible person (usually the parish priest) to keep an eye on the man and to send to them, say for twelve months after his discharge, reports as to how the man is getting on. In some cases work is found for the ex-prisoner by the priest or some other correspondent of the Witzwyl authorities; in others these officials themselves are able (by writing to the proper quarters) to secure employment for these men; in others again the Discharged Prisoners' Aid Society at Berne† puts the men in the way of obtaining employment.

* Asked by the Committee whether any offences against sexual morality were committed by the inmates, Herr Kellerhals said: "I think not."

† The Committee had an interesting conversation with the Vice-President of this society (the President being absent from Berne) and visited a small shelter maintained by the society at Berne. The Vice-President states that every year about twenty men from Witzwyl and fifteen from St. Johannsen (see *post*, p. 81, note) come to the shelter, of whom about eight to ten are reformed, make a decent living, and do not again get into trouble, the others turning out badly and ultimately falling again into the hands of the police.

It is worthy of remark that, while all Swiss subjects are expected to be furnished with "papers" showing their identity, etc., the Witzwyl authorities expressly abstain from marking on the papers* of a man about to be discharged any entry which would show that he has been detained in that prison. An employer, to whom the man might apply for work, could only know this fact if he were to make inquiry from the police or if the man is sent to him by a Public Labour Exchange which (as is done by the Berne Exchange) informs him of the circumstances. As the officials of the Berne Labour Exchange stated to this Committee, the Swiss employers are by no means invariably reluctant to engage a man whom they know to have been a prisoner at Witzwyl.

As to the number of ex-prisoners, who, on leaving Witzwyl, are able to find employment, no statistics are available.

NUSSHOF LABOUR COLONY.

In addition to the efforts which are made to provide ex-prisoners with situations in the open labour market, a special branch of the Witzwyl establishment, also visited by this Committee, has been created—a Labour Colony, which serves as a half-way house between the prison and the outer world. It is, as the Witzwyl officials observe, a difficult thing for a man discharged from Witzwyl, who has for months or years lived under the strict discipline maintained there, more especially if he was formerly addicted to an excessive use of alcohol, to use with discretion the complete liberty thus suddenly conferred upon him. Accordingly, this Labour Colony, where an ex-prisoner is received under an agreement which he enters into to stay there for at least two months (being, however, granted leave of absence to the extent of fourteen days in the year), has been established for the benefit of these men; the Colony also offers its hospitality (accepted with special eagerness in the winter months) to the "homeless" poor.

Object of colony,
and period of
stay of
colonists.

The number of the inmates at Nussdorf is ten to fifteen in summer, twenty to thirty in winter. They are in no case accompanied by wives or children. All mess together at one table, the food being prepared in the Colony kitchen.

Number of
inmates.

The labour performed by the inmates at Nussdorf is mainly agricultural, but the work of maintaining and extending a series of dykes (to prevent flooding) has been entrusted to the Colony by the Cantonal Authorities, and it also has a contract for doing all the loading and unloading of goods waggons at the neighbouring railway station of Gampelen. The Colonists are remunerated in part by free board and lodgings and also working clothes, in part by money wages, which, however, are not in all cases paid at once to the inmate; for the authorities have the right to retain what part of his pay they think fit until he leaves the Colony, and also to send part of it to his family, and this right is exercised in regard to about one-half of the inmates, though even then the man is allowed to receive some part in money down.

Occupations and
earnings.

A man who, in breach of his agreement, leaves the Colony before the end of two months, receives no money at all.

Except in the case of skilled craftsmen (with whom special terms are arranged) the rate of wages paid at Nussdorf is as follows: The regular full pay is from 4½d. to 1s. 2½d. per day; but a man starts at a lower rate, according to what the foreman thinks him to be worth. Colonists admitted in the winter months (from November 15th to the end of February) receive no cash wages. Those admitted between March 1st and the end of October, and who have worked to the satisfaction of the authorities, receive in winter, not indeed the full (summer) rate of wages, but a lower rate fixed by the foreman.

Rates of wages.

The inmates attend church, and the parish priest visits them from time to time, as also do some benevolent gentlemen who come over from Basle and Berne for the purpose. But no special means for the moral instruction of the Colonists are provided.

Religious
instruction.

There is a small loss on the working of the Nussdorf branch, but taking the Witzwyl establishment as a whole, its authorities claim that its working shows a profit. It

Receipts and
expenses of
colony.

* Except on the man's *military* papers; a Swiss, who has been in prison, is thereafter released from obligation to serve with the colours.

is true that (for example) the last balance sheet shows an excess of expenditure over receipts (including nearly £7,000 realised by the sale of agricultural produce) of about £800, and that this apparent deficit was made good by the Canton of Berne. But this account, as it stands, is somewhat confusing; for, on the one hand, nothing is debited in respect of rent for the great bulk of the estate, and, on the other hand, the entire value of the new buildings erected by the Witzwyl authorities in 1907 (about £4,700) is not taken into account in this revenue account.

In the 1908 budget of the Canton of Berne it is proposed in future to debit the establishment with a rent of £1,280 a year (which the Witzwyl authorities state is over 4 per cent. on the original purchase-money of the estate) and at the same time to increase the subvention which the Canton grants annually for the purpose of clearing off the "deficit" shown in the Witzwyl balance-sheet by a corresponding amount. It will be seen that, if this rent had been debited as an expense in 1907, then the balance against the colony on the results of the year's working would have been increased to about £2,000. On the other hand, it must be borne in mind that the value of the assets of the Witzwyl establishment was (as will have been seen) in 1907 increased by the addition of new buildings by no less than £4,700, and this altogether apart from the augmented value which the work done generally in relation to the improvement of the estate every year adds to the amount of its original cost.

Degree of success
of colony.

With respect to the extent, to which the detention of the inmates at Witzwyl succeeds in effecting the moral and social rehabilitation of these men, it is not easy to speak with any sort of certainty. As the Witzwyl authorities declare, their experience shows that the rule, "once a loafer, always a loafer," is found in very many cases to apply to the Witzwyl prisoners, and especially in the case of the numerous men of this class who are addicted to strong drink. But no statistics on the subject of recidivism are available. The Director estimated that out of the 176 prisoners detained at Witzwyl at the date of the Committee's visit, 25 per cent. had been there once at least before and 10 per cent. twice before. It is, however, of much interest to note that in his opinion the proportion of recidivists among men, whose sentences have, on his proposal, been in part remitted, is no more than about 1 per cent.

Suggested
improvements.

The Director of Witzwyl, when asked by the Committee what improvements in the arrangements there he would feel disposed to suggest, replied as follows:—

(1) He would like to see more done to help the families of the convicts, to whom the earnings of the prisoners at Witzwyl should be forwarded.

(2) He would like to see factories and workshops added to Witzwyl in which ex-prisoners could be allowed to work *permanently*. If he had more ex-prisoners at Witzwyl, he could find employment for them either as gangers in the agricultural work or in trades, as they might prefer; nor in his opinion would any financial loss be caused by the adoption of such plans.

(3) He would increase the period for which the colonists at Nussdorf bind themselves to stay in that Colony to six months.

LABOUR COLONY AT TANNENHOF.

Object and area
of colony.

In addition to the Nussdorf Colony the Director of Witzwyl has been entrusted with the management of the Labour Colony at Tannenhof (formerly under separate direction) which is situated in the immediate vicinity of the Witzwyl prison. This small farm colony, which owns 124 and rents another 370 acres of land—land mostly requiring vigorous reclamation, especially by work carried out in winter—and which is, speaking generally, carried on upon lines similar to those of a German Labour Colony, was visited by the Committee under the guidance of Herr Kellerhals. The purpose of the institution, which was founded in 1889, is to serve as a refuge for men unable to obtain work through the Public Labour Exchanges or otherwise. At the time of the Committee's visit there were thirty-seven men at Tannenhof, of whom twenty-nine were watchmakers. This is accounted for by the fact that there was, when the Committee were in Switzerland, a serious depression in that trade; as a rule, however, the occupation which looms largest in the Tannenhof admissions (76 out of 171 in 1907) is that of agricultural labourers.

As to age, 33 of the 171 men admitted in 1907 were between thirty and forty ; Ages of colonists. 37 between forty and fifty ; 48 between fifty and sixty ; and 28 over sixty years of age.

The inmates are required to pledge themselves to stay at least one month in the Period of stay of colonist; the actual average duration of their stay at Tannenhof is stated to be from inmates. four to five months.

The work done is mainly agricultural ; some of it (especially in winter) is done for Occupations. farmers in the neighbourhood. Herr Kellerhals said that he should like to introduce at Tannenhof more work of an industrial nature ; also that he would like to give each colonist a separate bedroom (at present the men sleep in large rooms used by a number together).

The Committee asked whether the Berne Labour Colony Association, to which Tan- Families of nenhof belongs, did anything to help the families of men staying in the colony. He inmates replied that no such help was given by the association, but assistance was given by the supported by Poor Law. Poor Law.

The Poor Law authorities send men to Tannenhof only with the consent of the Director ; such cases are rare. Nor do ex-prisoners go from Witzwyl to Tannenhof (they go to Nussdorf).

He also stated that the colony has occasionally to refuse admission on the ground of want of accommodation.

The report of the colony for 1907 states that the maintenance cost per head is : For Cost per head. food, 1 fr. ; for clothes, tobacco, etc., 34 c. ; or 1 fr. 34 c. in all ; that the money paid in wages to the colonists is equivalent to 38 c. per day, making the total cost of each inmate 1 fr. 72 c. per day. On the other hand, the value of a day's work done by a colonist is estimated at 1 fr. 50 c. Thus on each inmate there is a loss of 22 c. (a little over 2d.) per day. Towards covering this deficit the Canton and town of Berne contributed in 1907 a subvention of £224.

As to the moral effect of a stay at Tannenhof, it was found that no statistics of Degree of success. recidivism were to be obtained. But Herr Kellerhals, when asked if many men who had been at Tannenhof improved, so as to become self-supporting, replied that this was the case in many instances.*

CONCLUSIONS.

THE FREE LABOUR COLONIES, FREDERICKSCORD, HOLLAND.

The following paragraph suggests our general conclusions :—

This might be described as a voluntary association for placing people on the land. Dutch free As stated in our report, in admission the determining factor is the degree of poverty labour colonies. found to exist in each case. Persons with large families are *ceteris paribus* preferred. And there is a tendency to send more or less incapable people to the colonies. "The object of the colony is partly to afford support to people who do not find it possible to support themselves, but mainly to secure for the children of such people a thoroughly efficient training." Local committees of the Association select the cases. The operations of the Association are on a small scale, and, as is natural, benefit rather persons who come from rural districts or have a country experience than persons from the larger towns. It has not, at least, as it has been managed heretofore, been able to turn town-dwellers into permanent colonists, except, it may be, in a few instances. But the colonies

* The Committee, in addition to inspecting Witzwyl and Tannenhof, paid a brief visit to the penal farm at St. Johannsen, a few miles distant from Witzwyl (371 acres), used for the reception of : (i.) Men sent (for periods up to two years) by administrative order of the police (not by judicial sentence) for drunkenness, vagrancy, as "work-shy," etc. ; and (ii.) women convicted by a judge of solicitation, theft, child murder, arson, etc. All women convicted of illegal solicitation are detained at St. Johannsen. There is (as the Committee were informed) a great deal of recidivism among the women sent to St. Johannsen (less among the male prisoners). A rescue society at Berne sends ladies to visit the female prisoners, and on their discharge offers them shelter in a refuge, but these women seldom enter this home. The average number of the inmates of St. Johannsen in 1907 was 144 men and 38 women. At the date of the Committee's visit (August 24th, 1908), the numbers were : Men, 138 ; women, 28 ; the highest figures are reached in February (170 men, 40 women). The numbers (it was stated) are not affected by the presence or absence of industrial crises.

are good in this way. The colonists, it would seem, live hard-working thrifty lives ; they support themselves and their families, wholly or for the most part ; they are not cut off from the world ; they are visited by their grown-up children who stay with them during holidays ; they have the prospect of becoming free farmers. In addition to the advantages that have accrued to individuals, the land, it should be remembered, has been reclaimed and brought into cultivation. The co-operative method has already been introduced and is influencing the industry of the colonies. This and the making of a canal, as a waterway to the colony, are likely to improve its prospects greatly. On the other hand, it will be noted that farms on the property of the colony are let to outsiders. This suggests that good results might be considered to follow equally from the use of the land under the normal conditions of lease to tenants as from its use under the complicated conditions of lease which are incidental to the colony management. The reply would be that the colony is intended to be, and still on a small scale is, a place at which by their labour the settlers can win economic freedom and become independent. Stress was laid also, and it seemed to us rightly, on the good effect of the colony on the children. Indeed, in addition to its other objects the colony seemed to be serving a new purpose as a boarding-out district for children.

The system showed that labourers accustomed to country work could by means of the colony acquire an independent position in the course of some years—working very hard, and fed and housed extremely simply. It suggested no doubt that any town's person willing to accept these conditions of life might do the same.

A most interesting feature of the colony is the number of colonists who, in the course of time, have gradually become free farmers, and are there settled. Yet only very few of the colonists are considered able to become free farmers, so much so that, as we have stated, farms available for them have to be let otherwise.

We could form no judgment of the colony as a business concern.* It would almost of necessity require some external assistance to meet expenditure that would not be incurred in the case of ordinary tenants. Of recent years the development of the colony has been small. The support received from subscribers is not large.

II.—THE FORCED COLONY AT VEENHUIZEN, HOLLAND. THE COLONIES AT WORTEL AND HOOGSTRAETEN, MERXPLAS, BELGIUM.

The question of the possibility and utility of colonies administered in connection with the Poor Law but used for persons who would be detained for a longer or shorter period was suggested at the meetings of the Commission.

Dutch forced
labour colony :
Belgian colonies.

To the Veenhuizen colonies are sent beggars and vagrants. "Many are persons who, owing to physical and mental defects or old age, cannot be regarded as able to maintain themselves, and whom it would be impossible to train to do so." The colony is a penal or detention colony. Merxplas is a colony or group of colonies of the same kind. It is intended for the reception of able-bodied men who are professional beggars ; or who, on account of laziness, drunken habits, or immoral conduct, live in a state of vagrancy ; or who live on the earnings of prostitutes. Wortel serves for the more aged and infirm who lapse into mendicity or vagrancy caused by lack of employment or misfortune. Hoogstraeten is specially devoted to the non-able-bodied and sick. In Wortel no one can be kept beyond twelve months except of his free consent. The colony at Merxplas is much more completely organised as an industrial colony than is Veenhuizen.† The employment on the land is rather a very large branch of work than, as it is at Veenhuizen, the chief business. Merxplas is an extremely good instance of an industrial settlement, where the residents are subject to detention, very carefully classified, and allowed very ample opportunities for working according to their abilities. It represents a population in a world of its own, largely self-sustaining, and living below the level of existence of the independent labourer. Veenhuizen is similar in type, but less developed.

Observations on
colonies.

Some points bearing on our problem in regard to the two institutions are :—

- (1) The diet is mostly vegetarian.
- (2) The men have rewards for work.
- (3) The work within their reach is, at Merxplas, most diverse.
- (4) Outside firms run workshops for the colony and contract with it for labour. They produce articles—articles which, for the most part, are not manufactured in Belgium. The colony produces articles required by Government.

* The balance-sheet and profit and loss account of the Colony are printed in Appendix A., *post*, pp. 90, 91.

† The balance-sheet of the workshops at Merxplas is printed in Appendix C., *post*, p. 109.

(5) The influence of the work on the men seemed good. The participation in skilled work gave them an interest in life and seemed to promote orderliness throughout the establishment. Yet the evidence went to show that the labour of itself was not reformatory. To some extent work which did not come within the tasks of the day seemed desirable.

(6) The possibility of the expansion of the place as an industrial colony and the diversity of its industries depend on the fact that the men are detained.

(7) Whether detained or not the men over sixty should be separate.

(8) The numbers reclaimed are very few; on discharge practically nothing is done in the way of placing men in situations.

(9) The younger men should be classified and would, probably, be better dealt with quite separately. There might then be more reclamation.

(10) The place is too large for the exercise of individual moral influence. There should be more classification.

(11) There is no receiving house. The staff thought that there ought to be. The men are committed direct to one or other of the colonies. The staff thought it would be better if they were committed to the colonies merely, so that they might be classified at the outset and later on, as might seem best.

(12) The men, as at a prison, are dealt with without regard to their families. This does not seem to lead to the families being in want.

(13) Considered in relation to the claims of unemployed men simply, the difficulty would be detention. It has been suggested that men might learn a trade while unemployed. Possibly an agreement or contract might be made that would allow of a stay in such a working settlement for non-detained persons. But the period could not be approximately even as long as the period of detention.

(14) As a working settlement the organisation of Merxplas is very suggestive; but

(15) Most of the men there are drinkers or moral delinquents and soon come back.

(16) Whether more or less efficient, non-drinking men, subject to no detention would keep themselves together at such a settlement, as a kind of work-centre, is doubtful. If that is not possible, the unsatisfactory device of the town colony alone remains.

HAMBURG.

Some points and conclusions are these:—

Hamburg;
observations.

(1) As to relief, the system is very elaborate; and it is doubtful if it justifies its elaboration. Volunteers are largely used, and as to relief are kept within close limits; they take what one may call routine views of cases.

(2) The relief is outdoor relief pure and simple. The helper influence seemed to us slight. The helpers are voluntary relieving officers for the most part. The effort to reclaim or prevent distress seemed to us small—and was so by admission of some of the helpers. Of course, the scheme might be used differently. But the impression conveyed to us was that the charitable element was not an allied force in the administration so much as a force which, though available, was lost in the processes of official work. At any rate it did not seem to us to show any great activity. Of course, we may not have seen enough.

(3) The cases of unmarried mothers, back-rent payments, and some other cases were not effectively dealt with. Some of the dangers of the older poor relief in England obtained. The normal relief was a long allowance system—just long outdoor relief.

(4) The organisation was suggestive in many ways. The central office was usefully departmentalised—better probably than in a Union of the same size in England. The system of registration was good so far as it went; the touch with other official bodies was good—with the police, the labour bureaux, the orphanage authorities, and so on. There was a separate registration of cases

dealt with by charities. But it had not, it seemed, led to any conference between overlapping societies, convened with a view to co-operation in future. Co-operation with the charities was a task still unaccomplished to which attention was being constantly drawn.

(5) The cases were taken down at the central office ; this gave great control. But it had its defects. The touch at the start was very official. Sometimes a woman at a local office would have done the work better. The verification is done by the local helper ; but locally there seemed no sufficient scope given for revision and planning. One's feeling was that the spontaneous suggestive charitable element was forgotten or evaporated, and that the application was not always turned to the best account.

(6) The chief officials take a great interest in their work. The work of the charitable information bureau was very suggestive. The plan now legalised for dealing with unsatisfactory unemployed persons is well worthy of consideration.

(7) As to men who are out-of-work, they are referred to the labour bureaux. Men, mostly single men, are sometimes sent to the labour colonies. The colonies are on such a small scale that they are of no service except for homeless single men and women and those separated from their families.

(8) Able-bodied persons who do not find employment through the labour bureaux are usually relieved in their own homes, even known drunkards and other doubtful characters. The absence of any alternative method of dealing with such cases is an obvious blot on the system.

(9) The whole system may be summed up as an outdoor relief system ; none are sent to institutions who can possibly be relieved in their own homes.

(10) The distribution of public money by voluntary helpers, on such a scale as obtains at Hamburg, with but little check and verification would be open to great objection.

(11) Outdoor relief which was available for continuous allowances was liable to grave misuse as a resource for the payment of rent and for the support of women who had even successive illegitimate children.

(12) Sufficient stress was not laid upon training in case-work generally. The same might be said as to the causes of distress, considered with a view to their removal.

(13) It is a great advantage that a large number of persons—tradesmen, ministers and others are engaged in responsible work on behalf of the town. Undoubtedly they must be a useful *steadying* element. The method of selection did not result in the choice of members of the working classes to serve as helpers.

(14) In the cases the question of the amount of the income received from State insurances constantly comes up. The insurances of course, are for sums much less than that required for maintenance ; hence they are always ascertained and taken into account, and used as supplementary relief. This should tend to make the total relief larger per case, and in fact, the relief per case is becoming larger.

STRASSBURG INSURANCE AGAINST UNEMPLOYMENT.

Strassburg :
Insurance against
Unemployment.

The scheme has only been in operation since January 1st, 1907. The First Annual Report is printed *in extenso* in the Appendix ; it is, therefore, unnecessary to enlarge on the scheme. As to its ultimate utility, we cannot speak. Although it is called unemployed insurance it may be more properly described as subvention to Trades Unions who pay unemployed benefit. So far there has been no organisation formed for the purpose of taking advantage of the inducement offered ; but on the other hand, the existing Trades Unions who have joined the Municipal insurance scheme have increased in membership, but the leaders say it is not in any way due to the subvention. It is significant that all the Trades Unions are of skilled workmen. It is held to be impossible to ever include unskilled in the scheme, nothing short of a compulsory scheme can ever deal with this class of workmen effectively.

* Members of Trades Unions insured under the scheme are obliged when unemployed to have their cards stamped at the labour exchange, once, twice, and in some cases, three

times a day in order to prevent fraud. They are not expected to take relief work, but they must accept a situation at their own trade when offered by the Labour Exchange. It is evident that such a scheme of supplementing Trades Unions unemployed benefit would be unworkable without the Labour Exchange. As to whether the subvention is the best possible device for the prevention of skilled workmen becoming otherwise more dependent upon public assistance is a matter of serious consideration.

STRASSBURG LABOUR EXCHANGE.

The Strassburg Labour Exchange was established by the Municipality in 1896; since then it has developed to a considerable extent. It is managed by a joint committee of employers and employees, under the chairmanship of the Mayor of Strassburg:—

Strassburg :
Labour Exchange.

(1) It is linked up with Labour Exchanges in all parts of Germany and in other countries.

(2) Workpeople in every trade are registered on application.

(3) Persons for whom employment has been found are allowed to travel on the railways, fourth class free; and third class at half price, when there are no fourth class carriages on the train.

(4) All contractors for Municipal work must in the first instance select their men from the register. If unable to fill the places they may employ them from elsewhere.

(5) Several large companies have entered into agreements to engage all, and in one case a proportion of men, through the Labour Exchange.

(6) The management of the Exchange have been the means of settling disputes between the employers and the employees.

(7) In the case of strikes or lock-outs the Exchange observes a neutral position as far as possible; both employers and workmen are notified of their existence; the workmen or employers may then act as they please, no advice is given.

(8) Workpeople are not selected to fill vacancies in the order of registration. It is only followed in the absence of special circumstances affecting the suitability of an applicant for a vacant post. Preference is given to good workmen, and good employers are served first.

(9) Any person refusing to accept a situation is struck off the register for three months.

The Labour Exchange is in close co-operation with the Unemployed Workmen's Insurance, with Poor Law, and with Municipal relief works. When there is a scarcity of employment and relief works are necessary, all applicants are selected by the director of the Labour Exchange. On the other hand the Poor Law authority never relieves a person able to work unless the director of the Labour Exchange certifies that he is unable to find a situation.

In recent years the Labour Exchange has been remarkably successful; in 1907 there were 34,329 applications for employment; 26,576 situations offered; and 17,474 applicants obtained employment. In some trades employers get all their workpeople through the Exchange.

Taking the whole of the workpeople of Strassburg, it is estimated that fully three-fourths of the vacant situations are filled through the Labour Exchange. There are in the Exchange separate waiting-rooms for women and for one or two special trades.

The Poor Law deals with the worst class of able-bodied men, and the relief carries with it disfranchisement; relief is never given without first having the industrial record of the applicant from the director of the Labour Exchange. All those who break too much time through drink, are lazy and work-shy, negligent men whom no one will employ, and those who are otherwise unemployable, naturally fall into the category of Poor Law cases. They may be recommended for work when no more suitable men are on the books of the Labour Exchange. For this class of men Poor Law has no suitable method of dealing with them. There is no workhouse, and no test work except in winter. They are given domiciliary relief for their families in money or kind, and their rent is always paid in addition, as Poor Law would have to provide lodgings for them were they to be turned out of their

homes. Poor Law relief is also given to better classes of able-bodied workmen for whom no work can be found. The secretary informed the Committee that of those in receipt of temporary allowances fully 60 per cent. were able-bodied men.

APPRENTICESHIP.

Apprenticeship.

The urgent necessity for boys on leaving school being placed in suitable occupations, such as will enable them to become skilled workmen, has received the attention of the Strassburg authorities. There is now established in connection with the Labour Exchange an apprenticeship bureau; the chief points to be noted in the system are as follows:—

(1) In every Municipal school the teachers have the duty assigned to them of having the boys under their supervision until they attain their majority.

(2) The school teachers are provided with cards which are given to each boy who is about to leave school, to be filled up in his own handwriting, stating his choice of trade; whether his parents can lodge and keep him, pay a premium, or prefer his being apprenticed away from Strassburg; the name of master, if any, to whom he would prefer to be apprenticed, etc.

(3) The teacher fills in his notes on the boy's progress at school, his conduct, etc.

(4) The director of the Exchange, the medical officer of health, and the parents visit the school. The boy is examined, and his physical condition entered on the card by the medical officer.

(5) The master to whom the boy is about to be apprenticed is also subject to inquiry; for that purpose the opinion of the Association of Handicraftsmen is sought.

(6) For boys whose parents are unable through stress of circumstances to allow them to be apprenticed to a trade with a small wage, a special fund is provided, to which the Provincial Government make a grant.

The progress made in this department of the Labour Exchange is very satisfactory. It is not to be measured by the number of boys actually apprenticed through the intervention of the Exchange alone. Parents seek the advice of the Exchange as to particular trades, and masters to whom they are about to apprentice their boys. On the other hand, masters seek information respecting particular boys who are seeking to be apprenticed to them. Again, the medical certificate is of much value in preventing boys being apprenticed to trades for which they are physically unsuited.

BERNE UNEMPLOYED INSURANCE.

Berne : Unemployed Insurance

The scheme has been in operation since 1893. It is supported by a subvention from the Municipality, interest on investments, workmen's contributions, employers' contributions and donations. The total receipts in 1907-8 were £1,444 10s. 7½d., of which £480 was the subvention of the Municipality, while the contributions of the insured amounted to £157 1s. 7½d.; this total also included £399 16s. from the sale of, and £63 2s. 6½d., interest on securities. The unemployed payments made in 1907-8 amounted to £492 2s. 6½d. A fund is being accumulated:—

(1) All classes of workmen are allowed to insure except wood-choppers.

(2) Municipal employees were at one time obliged to insure; this regulation has been rescinded, now few of them are insured.

(3) It is apparently intended for seasonal workers, winter unemployment only is provided for. Membership must commence on April 1st. No unemployed benefit is paid before December 1st, and it ends on March 1st. The insured must pay regularly his contribution for eight months before being eligible for unemployment benefit.

(4) The Municipality endeavour to provide relief work for members.

(5) Unemployed allowance is not paid to persons who have lost their work through carelessness or negligence.

The number of persons insured has gradually dwindled from 644 in 1901 to 508 in 1907. The percentage of unemployment in 1901 was 38, whilst in 1907 it was 46. The withdrawal of Municipal employees and the exclusion of wood-choppers may to some extent account for the falling off in membership.

BERNE MUNICIPAL LABOUR EXCHANGE.

The Municipal Labour Exchange was established in 1889. It is open to both male and female applicants free of charge, a small fee being charged to employers. A few points might be briefly set out :—

Berne : Labour Exchange.

- (1) It is connected with all the public Labour Exchanges in Switzerland.
- (2) Men for whom employment has been found at a distance are allowed to travel on the railways at half-fares.
- (3) The attitude of Trades Unions towards it is apathetic. Some Unions have transferred their employment registers to it, others maintain their own labour register.
- (4) All departments of the Berne Municipality apply for labour at the Exchange.
- (5) Preference is given in all cases to persons who are insured against unemployment.
- (6) Persons not insured for whom employment cannot be found are, if in need of food, referred to one of the travellers' relief stations. Others for whom there is no opening are referred to the relief authority (unofficially).
- (7) It is managed by a joint committee of members of Municipal Council, employers and workmen.

Since 1901 there has been a large increase in applications for work, and in applications of employers for work-people. The increase has been gradual year after year, which indicates the increased utility of the Exchange. It is found to be of great advantage both to employers and employees.

THE BERNE COLONIES.

There are a series of four colonies in the Canton of Berne and a poorhouse, viz., Witzwyl, Nussdorf, Tannenhof, St. Johannsen, and Kühlewyl, all of which were visited by the Committee :—

(1) Witzwyl Colony is a Cantonal prison for the detention of men committed for various offences for a period of not less than three months nor exceeding three years. It is under the supervision of the Prison Commissioners.

Witzwyl colony.

(2) The offences are theft, assault, arson, homicide, vagrancy, loafing, persons refusing to support their families, offences against morality, and duelling.

(3) It is an agricultural estate on reclaimed land worked by prisoners, ex-prisoners, and paid labourers.

(4) The prisoners sleep and have their meals in cells for the first six months. They work on the land in small gangs under working gangers, some of whom are ex-prisoners.

(5) There are 200 prisoners with no warders, police, or soldiers, the personal influence of the director and gangers is sufficient for the maintenance of order and enforcing discipline. After the expiration of the term of detention, prisoners in some cases are allowed to stay as colonists.

(5a) The success of the system was due to the large number of gangers. By the weight of their own numbers, by their work and by their influence they carried the administration through. Thus they enabled the colony to pay its way, and the services of the police were not required. Undoubtedly, also, the governor and his wife had a very remarkable personal influence, which kept the colony active and united, without even any appearance of force.

(6) There is no industrial occupation, but the director is anxious to introduce some, in order to give more employment during winter months.

(7) Very few attempt to escape, only eight in 1907.

(8) Sentences are sometimes remitted by the Cantonal authorities on the advice of the director.

(9) Of the 262 prisoners admitted in 1907, 35 per cent. were "recidivists," practically all of whom were belonging to the loafer and vagrant class; of the 262, only sixty-seven had wives. On the day of our visit 25 per cent. had been there once before and 10 per cent. twice. No age statistics are kept.

(10) Small wages are paid according to conduct and output, and credited to the men for their use on discharge.

(11) Classes are held for instruction in elementary subjects. A lay instructor gives lessons in ethical subjects, clergymen in the neighbouring villages hold services and give moral instruction.

(12) The men's employment papers are not entered up as prisoners on leaving the colony, as it might prejudice the men's chances in getting employment.

(13) No statistics of the number of ex-prisoners obtaining employment are available. Efforts are made to place men by voluntary agencies to a small extent.

(14) The reclamation of men is not chronicled; it was stated to be rather small.

(15) Recidivism is not large considering the class, two out of three are not known to return again.

NUSSHOF COLONY.

Nusshof colony.

This colony is used principally as a branch of Witzwyl to which ex-prisoners might bind themselves for a period of at least two months in order to regain gradually their position in the industrial community. It is, in fact, a halfway house between prison and the outer world:—

(1) The accommodation is for about thirty men. They are employed in agricultural work and in the reclamation of land, etc.

(2) Wages are paid as at Witzwyl, but on a somewhat higher scale.

(3) The inmates attend church, and the parish priest visits them, but no special means of moral instruction is given.

There is a small loss on the working of this colony, but taking Witzwyl and Nusshof together the balance-sheet for 1907 shows a profit, including the value of improvements, taken on a valuation made by commercial valuers.

TANNENHOF COLONY.

Tannenhof colony.

This colony belongs to the Berne Labour Colony Association, a benevolent institution, but is under the management of the Director of Witzwyl. It comprises a farm of 500 acres with accommodation for about forty men:—

(1) Inmates are admitted by the management, but no one can claim admission.

(2) No assistance is given by the Association to the families of inmates.

(3) They are expected to sign an agreement to stay at least one month; the average stay is five months.

(4) Wages are paid to the colonists, and there is a loss on the working. The town of Berne makes an annual subvention.

(5) Poor Law authorities may send men to the colony with the consent of the director; such cases are rare.

(6) There are no statistics of recidivism.

It may be described as a refuge for men unable to obtain employment; men of all trades seek admission. On the day of the Committee's visit more than two-thirds of the inmates were watchmakers. A very large percentage, however, of those who seek admission are agricultural labourers.

Industrial employment would, the director said, be of great advantage, but the kind of trades which he would introduce he had not yet considered.

ST. JOHANNSEN COLONY.

This is a penal colony for both men and women. All the colonists are under detention. They are sent by administrative order of the police for periods up to two years. St. Johannsen colony.

KÜHLEWYL POORHOUSE.

A somewhat similar institution to an English mixed workhouse, except that there are no children, and there is power of detention of certain classes. Persons within these classes are sent by administrative order of the Municipal Authority of Berne. One or two classes might be mentioned in particular, viz. :— Kühlewyl poorhouse.

(1) Persons whose unemployment is due to their own fault, drunkards, and loafers, etc. The usual period of detention is for one year, but they may be allowed to take their discharge if the authorities are satisfied that regular employment has been found for them.

(2) Persons committed for misconduct are mainly prostitutes, but the number is also inclusive of persons who are described as "those with whom it is impossible to live," *e.g.*, incorrigible street fighters and brawlers. They are allowed to leave if and when the authorities are satisfied that they are reformed characters. But the reformation of such persons is not very successful.

(3) Aged and sick persons who need care and attention. These are only allowed to leave on the authorities being satisfied that they will be properly cared for by their friends or relatives.

We were informed that of the two classes first mentioned, three out of every four have been inmates of either Witzwyl or St. Johannsen. But as the number in these two classes admitted in 1907 was only twenty-three, it denotes a small residuum of unimprovable who gravitate to the poorhouse after a period of detention in one of the colonies.

Of the poorhouse itself we can say that it is unsuitable for training or reforming its inmates, with the miscellaneous classes herded together comprising convalescents from hospitals, aged, infirm, sick, idiots, lunatics, able-bodied unemployed (under detention), and those sentenced for misconduct; with no proper system of classification, a staff too small to ensure proper supervision, and a total absence of moral or religious influence.

All the failings of an English mixed workhouse obtain here in so far as the inmates leave no better than on the day they entered, except physically. But there is, however, no such class as that of "ins-and-outs" with which we are so familiar. With a total population in the poorhouse of 361, only 63 persons were admitted during the year 1907; roughly, the admissions were only one-sixth of the total number of inmates, whilst in an English workhouse of the same size the yearly admissions would be about double the number of inmates.

To this workhouse the ordinary able-bodied man is not admitted.—Tannenhof Colony is for that purpose—it is more a house for the permanently disabled and for able-bodied misdemeanants under detention than a house of refuge for the destitute. The able-bodied are a semi-criminal class, difficult to reform and for whom a short term of imprisonment would be useless. Yet this is the class mostly in need of reform, and for whom every effort should be made to reclaim them. In this direction the system might be improved. Reliance is placed on a long period of detention to cure them of their evil habits. In order to prevent relapses, an organisation is needed for dealing with discharges in a systematic manner. Efforts should be directed more towards placing the men in proper lodgings and suitable employment. They are denied the advantages of the relief stations which are established for the benefit of workmen travelling in search of work, probably with good reason; it would tend to encourage vagrancy.

What can be said in favour of the system as a whole is that :—

Observations.

(1) Those detained are removed for a time out of the way of temptation and possible misconduct, and, as at Witzwyl, with no cost to the community.

(2) The long detention and discipline is good for the men, as shown by the number who do not return again; recidivism is low considering the class.

(3) It is effective in discouraging vagrancy and loafing habits.

The Committee have to thank Mr. Schloss for his services in enabling them to carry out their work. His knowledge of languages and of questions connected with employment, his readiness and carefulness in enquiry, his persistency in ascertaining facts and opinions on the points on which they desired information, were of very great value to the Committee.

APPENDIX A.

PART I.—BALANCE SHEET OF THE ASSOCIATION OF BENEFICENCE FOR 1906.

Debit.				Credit.			
		£	s. d.			£	s. d.
To Cash in hand - - - - -		892	0 0	By Capital - - - - -		68,011	0 0
" Finance Commissioner - - - - -		10	0 0	" The Netherlands Bank - - - - -		755	0 0
" Movable Property - - - - -		149	0 0	" Creditors - - - - -		136	0 0
" Pasture-land " <i>Het Broek</i> " - - - - -		780	0 0	" Workpeople's Clothes Accounts - - - - -		64	0 0
" Lands - - - - -		22,436	0 0	" Mortgages on Securities - - - - -		4,833	0 0
" Forests - - - - -		6,204	0 0	" Rotterdam Mortgage Bank - - - - -		7,224	0 0
" Roadside Trees - - - - -		1,725	0 0	" Officials' Pension Fund - - - - -		262	0 0
" Buildings - - - - -		14,500	0 0				
" Churches and Clergymen's Dwellings - - - - -		977	0 0				
" Real Property outside the Society - - - - -		379	0 0				
" <i>Willem III</i> Farm - - - - -		1,926	0 0				
" <i>Prinses Marianne</i> Farm - - - - -		1,908	0 0				
" <i>'s-Gravenhage</i> Farm - - - - -		1,678	0 0				
" <i>Boschoord</i> Farm - - - - -		316	0 0				
" <i>Utrecht</i> Farm - - - - -		1,714	0 0				
" <i>Rustoord</i> Farm - - - - -		667	0 0				
" <i>Generaal van den Bosch</i> Farm - - - - -		1,974	0 0				
" <i>Amsterdam</i> Farm - - - - -		1,429	0 0				
" Cultivation of <i>Willem III</i> Farm - - - - -		1,585	0 0				
" " " <i>Prinses Marianne</i> Farm - - - - -		1,665	0 0				
" " " <i>'s-Gravenhage</i> Farm - - - - -		1,573	0 0				
" " " <i>Boschoord</i> Farm - - - - -		653	0 0				
" " " <i>Utrecht</i> Farm - - - - -		1,827	0 0				
" Basket Factories - - - - -		973	0 0				
" Mat Factories - - - - -		270	0 0				
" Clothes Shop - - - - -		149	0 0				
" Carpentering and Paint Shops - - - - -		501	0 0				
" Turf Digging - - - - -		73	0 0				
" Opening-up Heath - - - - -		333	0 0				
" Workpeople's Reserve Account - - - - -		276	0 0				
" Labourers - - - - -		1,169	0 0				
" Municipal Councils - - - - -		58	0 0				
" Contractors - - - - -		592	0 0				
" Securities - - - - -		8,633	0 0				
" Debtors - - - - -		1,113	0 0				
" Agricultural Implements - - - - -		92	0 0				
" Portable rail - - - - -		86	0 0				
		<u>£81,285</u>	<u>0 0</u>			<u>£81,285</u>	<u>0 0</u>

G. VAN LEUSEN, *Manager of the Charity Society.*

Approved by Commissioners at their Meeting of April 26th, 1907.

W. H. DE BEAUFORT, *President*Mr. F. J. M. A. REEKERS, *Secretary.*

APPENDIX A.—Continued.

PART II.—PROFIT AND LOSS ACCOUNT OF THE ASSOCIATION OF BENEFICENCE,
FOR 1906.

Debit.	£	s.	d.	Credit.	£	s.	d.
To Movable Property - - -	9	0	0	By Pasture Land, "Het Broek" - -	36	0	0
" Laying out of Orchard - - -	57	0	0	" Lands - - - - -	838	0	0
" Up-keep of Roads - - - -	162	0	0	" Forests - - - - -	180	0	0
" " " Canals and Water				" Roadside Trees - - - - -	13	0	0
" " " Conduits	77	0	0	" Hire of Buildings - - - - -	981	0	0
" " " Bridges and Turning				" Real Property outside the Society -	5	0	0
" " " Wheels	64	0	0	" <i>Generaal van den Bosch</i> Farm -	143	0	0
" " " Buildings - - -	1,131	0	0	" <i>Amsterdam</i> Farm - - -	104	0	0
" " " Churches and Clergy-				" Cultivation of <i>Willem III.</i> Farm -	178	0	0
" " " men's Dwellings	38	0	0	" " " <i>Prinses Marianne</i>			
" " " <i>Willem III.</i> Farm -	59	5	0	" " " Farm	235	0	0
" " " <i>Prinses Marianne</i> Farm -	65	0	0	" " " <i>s'Gravenhage</i> Farm -	344	0	0
" " " <i>s'Gravenhage</i> Farm -	71	0	0	" " " <i>Utrecht</i> Farm - -	140	0	0
" " " <i>Boschoord</i> Farm - -	1	0	0	" Basket Factories - - - - -	196	0	0
" " " <i>Utrecht</i> Farm - - -	52	0	0	" Clothes Shop - - - - -	80	0	0
" " " <i>Rustoord</i> Farm - - -	6	0	0	" Carpentering and Paint Shops -	181	0	0
" Cultivation of <i>Boschoord</i> Farm -	119	0	0	" Turf Digging - - - - -	17	0	0
" " " <i>Rustoord</i> Farm - -	70	0	0	" Gifts and Legacies - - - - -	956	0	0
" Mat Factory - - - - -	59	0	0	" Contribution of Dutch Indies -	24	0	0
" Bread Bakery - - - - -	1	0	0	" Branches - - - - -	407	0	0
" Land Improvement - - - -	40	0	0	" Correspondents - - - - -	56	0	0
" Opening up of Heath into Forest	25	0	0	" Awards - - - - -	4	0	0
" " " Arable				" Contribution of			
" " " Land and Pasture Land	338	0	0	" G. A. van Swietenfonds	697	0	0
" Religious Service - - - -	38	0	0				
" Cost of Administration - - -	35	0	0				
" Education - - - - -	161	0	0				
" Expenses - - - - -	106	0	0				
" Travelling Expenses - - - -	106	0	0				
" Interest Account - - - - -	311	0	0				
" Rates and Taxes and Insurance -	501	0	0				
" Telephone - - - - -	25	0	0				
" Medical Attendance - - - -	149	0	0				
" Advance to Workpeople - - -	37	0	0				
" Removing, Snow-clearing, etc. -	7	0	0				
" Grants to Old Officials and their							
" " " Widows	180	0	0				
" Bonds - - - - -	303	0	0				
" Resting Places, I. and II. - -	159	0	0				
" J. H. v. d. Veen, Agent - - -	67	0	0				
" Portable Rail - - - - -	10	0	0				
" Bad Debts - - - - -	1	0	0				
" Incidental Expenses - - - -	18	0	0				
" Capital, Balance of Profits - -	1,157	0	0				
	£5,815	0	0		£5,815	0	0

G. VAN LEUSEN, *Manager of the Charity Society.*

Approved by Commissioners at their meeting of April 26th, 1907.

W. H. DE BEAUFORT, *President.*MR. F. J. M. A. REEKERS, *Secretary.*

APPENDIX B.

TRANSLATION OF BILLS REGARDING MENDICANCY AND VAGRANCY, AND DRUNKENNESS,
DRAFTED BY THE DUTCH ROYAL COMMISSION APPOINTED ON SEPTEMBER 22nd
1903, AND OF THE EXPLANATIONS OF THE ARTICLES OF THE BILLS, AS WELL AS OF
PROPOSED AMENDMENTS IN THE CRIMINAL CODE.

NOTE.—The “Officer of Justice” is an official of the Public Prosecution Department, attached to each Arrondissement Court of Justice. An “Assistant Officer of Justice” is any person, who in virtue of his office, has to detect crime and take action in criminal matters and report thereon to the Officer of Justice and the term may include burgomasters, superintendents of police, cantonal magistrates, etc.

The lowest court of justice is that of the “Cantonal Magistrate”; more important matters are dealt with by the “Arrondissement Courts”; there are about twenty-three of these in the Netherlands, the jurisdiction of each covering several cantons.

The word translated “magistrate” usually covers any judge, or court of judges.

DRAFT BILL FOR THE RESTRAINT OF MENDICANCY AND VAGRANCY.

CHAPTER I.

GENERAL PROVISIONS.

Article 1.

Persons who commit an act of mendicancy or vagrancy may be committed by a magistrate to the custody of the State, in accordance with the provisions of this law.

The following persons are to be treated similarly to those committing any of the above-mentioned acts, viz :—

(a) Persons, who hawk worthless articles, or articles practically worthless, who publicly exhibit diseased parts of their body or bodily defects or publicly assert the existence of diseases or defects in their body, who publicly practise the calling of a ballad singer or street musician or give a dramatic or other performance, or who publicly exhibit articles or animals—provided any or all of these acts is committed with the object of eliciting charity or obtaining alms.

(b) Persons who intentionally allow a child under eighteen years of age, who is under their parental authority or guardianship or has been committed to their care, to beg or commit any of the acts enumerated under (a)

Article 2.

Persons committed to the custody of the State shall be : either interned in a Government labour colony or committed to the custody and care of an association domiciled in the Netherlands and possessing full legal rights, or to a benevolent institution or establishment domiciled in the Netherlands, the statutes, articles of foundation or regulations of which provide for the permanent care of mendicants or vagrants in or outside of such institutions.

Article 3.

The period for which persons may be committed to the custody of the State is three years.

Article 4.

Such period may be twice extended by a magistrate for a period of two years at a time.

Further extensions for periods of two years at a time may be decreed by the magistrate only if a request therefor has been made to the Minister of Justice by the person in custody.

Article 5.

If at the time of the decision of the President of the Arrondissement Court of Justice provided for in Article thirteen of this law the person committed to the custody of the State had not attained the age of eighteen, he shall, from the time the decision or sentence committing him to such custody becomes legally binding, [i.e., no appeal can be made against it] be treated in accordance with the legal provisions applicable to persons committed to the custody of the State in virtue of Article 39 of the Criminal Code.

If, however, at the time of the decision of the President the person committed to the custody of the State, has attained the age of sixteen but not the age of eighteen, the magistrate may order that the provisions of the preceding paragraph shall not be applied to him, and he shall then be treated in accordance with the provisions of this law.

CHAPTER II.

LEGAL PROCEDURE.

SECTION I.

PRELIMINARY INVESTIGATION.

Article 6.

Offenders may be arrested and shall then be brought before an Officer of Justice or an Assistant Officer of Justice within forty-eight hours.

Article 7.

The officials designated in Article 8, Nos. 1 to 6, of the Code of Criminal Procedure, the mounted constabulary and all municipal police officials are authorised to take steps to detect the offences in question and to arrest the offender.

They must state the offence and record the arrest in a procès-verbal drawn up on their oath of office or attested by oath. They shall forward this process-verbal without delay to the Officer of Justice or an Assistant Officer of Justice.

Officers of Justice may charge the officials designated in the first paragraph of this article with the duty of detecting offences and arresting offenders.

Article 8.

The Officer of Justice or the assistant officer shall hear the offender and shall draw up a procès-verbal of such hearing on his oath of office ; he may issue an order for the offender to be provisionally received into a house of detention.

Such order shall be in force for thirty days from the date of the receipt of the offender. It may be extended by the Court of Justice whatever be the state of the case, until the final decision or sentence becomes binding, for a period of not more than thirty days.

Article 9.

If an assistant officer hears the offender, he shall submit to the Officer of Justice the records of the case and a copy of the order for provisional detention within forty-eight hours.

Article 10.

The Officer of Justice shall immediately apply for extracts from the Register of Births, the Penal Register and the General Register provided for in Article 78 of this law.

Article 11.

The Officer of Justice may institute an investigation himself or entrust it to the officials designated in the first paragraph of Article 7 of this law.

If the Officer of Justice considers that there is no reason to commit the offender to the custody of the State, no further proceedings shall be taken in the case, and he shall order the offender to be set at liberty if he has been provisionally detained.

If on the conclusion of the investigation the Officer of Justice considers that there is ground for committing the offender to the custody of the State, he shall forward the documents relating to the case with his application for such committal to the President of the Arrondissement Court of Justice.

If the offender has been provisionally received into a house of detention, the investigation must be terminated

within six days from the date of the arrest. The President may extend this period for special reasons, on the application of the Officer of Justice.

SECTION II.

THE INVESTIGATION AND DECISION OF THE PRESIDENT OF THE ARRONDISSEMENT COURT OF JUSTICE.

Article 12.

The President shall hear the offender within three days from the date on which he received the documents relative to the case. He shall institute a further investigation if he considers it desirable.

The offender loses his right to be heard if he is at liberty and fails to appear when a summons has been served on him.

The President shall cause the Registrar to draw up a *procès-verbal* of the oral examination, which shall be signed by both of them. Article 2 of the law of May 26, 1841, *Staatsblad* No. 18, applies hereto.

Article 13.

If it appears to the President from the investigation, that the offence was committed, he may commit the offender to the custody of the State.

If it does not appear to the President that the offence was committed or if he does not consider it desirable for the offender to be committed to the custody of the State he shall refuse to make the committal applied for, and if the offender has been provisionally detained he shall order him to be set at liberty.

The Officer of Justice may, with due observance of the provisions of the second paragraph of Article 8, postpone the liberation of the offender for the period within which he can, in accordance with Articles 18 and 19 of this law, appeal against the decision of the President, and, if he has made use of his right of appeal, until the decision appealed against becomes finally binding.

Article 14.

Within two days from the date on which the investigation is ended, the President shall make the decision mentioned in Article 13, and shall communicate it to the Officer of Justice within two days at most from the date on which it was arrived at.

Article 15.

If the offender has been provisionally detained, the Officer of Justice shall cause the decision to be communicated to him within two days after the date of its receipt, and shall notify in the document making such communication the right of appeal accorded to the offender by Article 18.

If the offender is at liberty, the communication shall be made to him within eight days of the above-mentioned date.

The execution of the decision may take place after the third day after its notification to the offender.

Such notification is not required, if the offender is not committed to the custody of the State and the Officer of Justice does not appeal against the decision.

Article 16.

If it appears to the President from the investigation that the offence was committed by a foreigner, he shall order him to be conveyed over the boundaries of the Netherlands territory in Europe.

No further appeal from such decision is possible, than that provided by Article 20 of the law of August, 13, 1849, *Staatsblad* No. 39; the second, third and fourth paragraphs of Article 12 of the latter law are applicable.

If the Supreme Court decides that the applicant is a Netherlands subject, it shall remit the case to the President of the Court making the decision for final action.

Article 17.

For the purposes of the duties imposed on him by the present law, the President may cause a magistrate to act as his substitute.

SECTION III.

APPEAL FROM THE DECISION OF THE PRESIDENT OF THE ARRONDISSEMENT COURT OF JUSTICE.

Article 18.

Appeal may be made against the decision of the President to the Court of Justice which adjudicates civil cases, by the Officer of Justice, if the decision does not involve the committal of the offender, and by the offender in the contrary case.

An appeal instituted by the Officer of Justice shall be notified to the offender within 48 hours.

Article 19.

Any appeal by the Officer of Justice shall be instituted within two days from the date on which the President shall have communicated the decision to him, and any appeal by the offender within two days from the date on which the decision was notified to him.

If, however, the offender is at liberty and notification was not made to him personally, he may institute an appeal within two days from the date on which he is arrested in execution of the decision. The execution of the decision is thereby postponed.

The Officer of Justice may order a person who is arrested in execution of a decision against which appeal is made to be provisionally detained in a house of detention. The second paragraph of Article 8 is applicable in such cases.

Article 20.

An appeal is made by means of a statement to the Registrar of the Court.

An offender, who is not at liberty, may institute an appeal by handing a written statement or making an oral statement to the Director or other person in charge of the house of detention.

The latter shall immediately make communication thereof to the Registrar and forward to him the written statement if such was made.

Article 21.

The Court of Justice shall hear the offender within eight days from the date on which the appeal was made.

The Court shall institute such further investigation as it may consider desirable.

A *procès-verbal* as provided for by the third paragraph of Article 12 of this law shall be drawn up of the oral examination. This *procès-verbal* shall contain *inter alia* the names of the members of the Court and of the Registrar, who took part in the proceedings in the case.

The offender, the witnesses and experts shall be heard by the Court in a public session in the presence of the Officer of Justice.

If the offender is at liberty and fails to appear after a summons has been served on him, his hearing shall be dispensed with.

The President shall conclude the examination in public and shall state when the judgment of the Court shall be given.

Article 16 of this law is applicable in such cases, with the provision that the Court shall have the same rights as are thereby accorded to the President and that the Supreme Court shall remit the case to the Court making the decision.

Article 22.

If it appears in the course of the deliberations of the judges that the examination was not complete, the Court may re-open the examination.

The last six paragraphs of the preceding Article are applicable in this case.

Article 23.

Within eight days after the termination of the examination, the Court shall, as a Court of supreme jurisdiction, deliver its finding in a public session in the presence of the offender if possible, which finding shall entirely or partially confirm or annul the decision of the President.

Such finding shall contain *inter alia* the names of the members of the Court who arrived thereat; it shall be signed by the President and the Registrar.

Such finding shall within two days after the date on which it was delivered be notified to the offender who shall be informed in the document making such notification of the faculty accorded to him by Article 25.

If the offender is at liberty, the notification shall take place within eight days after such date.

Such notification is not required, if the accused is not sentenced to be committed to the custody of the State and the officer of justice does not institute an appeal for proceedings to be quashed.

Article 24.

At any stage in the proceedings, even during the preliminary investigation and after the final finding, before it has become binding, the Court of Justice may, on its own initiative or on demand of the Officer of Justice or at the request of the person arrested or

provisionally detained in the house of detention, order such prisoner to be set at liberty, or, if he is at liberty, order him, either on its own initiative or on demand of the Officer of Justice to be provisionally detained in the house of detention. In such cases the second paragraph of Article 8 is applicable.

For the purpose of exercising this right the Court may always demand the documents relative to the case from the person in whose possession they are.

SECTION IV.

APPEAL FOR PROCEEDINGS TO BE QUASHED. (APPEAL TO COURT OF CASSATION).

Article 25.

Appeal for the final decision of the Court of Justice to be quashed on the ground of improper application or violation of the law or on the ground that legal powers have been exceeded may be made to the Supreme Court adjudicating civil matters by the Officers of Justice within two days from the date on which such finding was announced, or by the person committed to the custody of the State within two days from the date on which such finding was notified to him.

If the person so committed is at liberty and such notification was not made to him personally, he may institute an appeal within two days from the date on which he was arrested for the execution of the final decision.

The Officer of Justice may order a person who is arrested in execution of a decision against which an appeal is made to the Court of Cassation to be detained provisionally in a house of detention. The second paragraph of Article 8 is applicable in such cases.

No appeal can be made for other judicial decisions to be quashed than those specified in the first paragraph of this article and arrived at in virtue of this law.

Article 26.

Appeal is instituted in the manner prescribed in Article 20.

Within two days after the institution of appeal the Registrar of the Court of Justice shall send the documents relative to the case to the Registrar of the Supreme Court.

Article 27.

The person appealing may within eight days after the institution of the appeal forward to the Supreme Court a statement giving his reasons why the decision should be quashed.

Article 28.

The Supreme Court shall confirm or annul the finding and shall decide the case. If in case of annulment of the decision the Supreme Court considers an enquiry into matters of fact necessary, it shall remit the case to the Court which arrived at the decision in order that it may adjudicate the case afresh without reference to its previous decision.

SECTION V.

EXTENSION OF THE PERIOD OF COMMITTAL.

Article 29.

The period of committal may be extended, with due observance of the provisions of Article 4 of this law, by the President of the Court of Justice at which the case was dealt with, or if an appeal was made to the Court of Justice, by such Court.

The person committed to the custody of the State may appeal against the decision of the President, which shall be notified to him, to the Court of Justice, unless the decision provides for an extension in virtue of the provisions of the second paragraph of Article 4. Mention shall be made of the right of appeal in the documents notifying the person committed to State custody of the decision.

Appeal must be made by handing a written statement or making an oral declaration to the Director of the Labour Colony in which the person is interned within eight days from the date on which the extension is notified to him.

The Director shall immediately communicate such declaration to the Registrar of the Court, forwarding the written statement of the inmate, if such was made.

If the person committed to the custody of the State is not interned in a Labour Colony, appeal shall be made by forwarding a written declaration to the

Registrar of the Court, which declaration must be received within eight days from the date on which the extension was notified to the person committed.

Article 30.

The term of committal may be extended only on the proposal of the Minister of Justice after consultation with the Classification Committee mentioned in Article 48, or in case the person detained has been committed to the care of an association institution or establishment, as provided in Article 2, after consulting the Board of Administration of such association or institution.

The Committee or Board shall in the first place hear the person committed and shall draw up a written statement as to such hearing.

If the magistrate considers there is cause therefor, he shall institute such further investigation as he may consider desirable.

If the person committed has been provisionally discharged his deposition shall be taken by one of the officials designated in Article 79.

Article 31.

Articles 29 and 30 are applicable to persons committed to the custody of the State in virtue of articles 137 *bis* and 137 *ter* of the Criminal Code, by sentence of a criminal judge.

Article 32.

No appeal may be made for the decisions mentioned in this Section to be quashed.

SECTION VI.

GENERAL PROVISIONS AS TO THIS CHAPTER.

Article 33.

It shall be within the competence of the Arrondissement Court of Justice within whose jurisdiction acts contravening the present law are committed, or within whose jurisdiction the offender lives or is found, to take cognisance of such acts.

In the event of a case being simultaneously dealt with by more than one Court, the proceedings shall be referred to the Court which is first named in the wording of the preceding paragraph.

Article 34.

The Officer of Justice, the President and the Court of Justice may cause witnesses, experts or interpreters to be summoned to an investigation to be held by them, and in case of their non-appearance cause them to be brought to such investigation.

The President and the Court of Justice may examine such persons either on oath or on their word of honour taken according to the rites of their religious persuasion.

Article 35.

All decisions and sentences of the magistrates shall be entrusted to the Officer of Justice for execution by him or on his behalf.

Article 36.

Legal documents shall be notified (served) in the manner prescribed in Article 144 of the Code of Criminal Procedure.

Article 37.

The law of April 18, 1874, *Staatsblad* No. 66 shall be applicable as regards legal costs incurred in virtue of the provisions of this Chapter.

The Officer of Justice shall decide as to the remuneration to be accorded to witnesses, experts and interpreters summoned to appear before him.

CHAPTER III.

TREATMENT OF PERSONS COMMITTED TO THE CUSTODY OF THE STATE.

SECTION I.

GOVERNMENT LABOUR COLONIES.

SUB-SECTION I.

JURISDICTION AND SUPERVISION.

Article 38.

The Minister of Justice shall have the supreme jurisdiction over the Government labour colonies.

Article 39.

Each labour colony shall be administered by a Director; labour colonies for females may be administered by a Directress.

The administration of several labour colonies situated near each other may be affected under the direction of a Head Director.

Article 40.

Every Government labour colony shall be supervised by a Committee of Supervision. In cases covered by the second paragraph of Article 39 the supervision of several labour colonies may be carried out by a single Committee.

Article 41.

The general supervision of all labour colonies shall be carried out by a General Board of Supervision, Assistance and Advice.

Article 42.

The Head Directors, the Directors and the members of the General Board shall be appointed and dismissed by H.M. the Queen; other officials and members of Committees of Supervision shall be appointed and dismissed by the Minister of Justice after consultation with the General Board, and if necessary with the Committee of Supervision acting through the intermediary of that Board.

Article 43.

In the temporary absence of the General Board provision shall be made by H.M. the Queen for its duties to be carried out in some other way, and similar provision shall be made by the Minister of Justice as regards the Committees of Supervision.

SUBSECTION II.

CLASSIFICATION AND SEGREGATION DEPOT.

Article 44.

There shall be four classes of Government Labour Colonies for men.

Article 45.

The distribution of the inmates into these four classes shall be determined mainly by their moral qualities.

The necessities of the work at the institutions shall not influence the classification.

Article 46.

The third class shall be the normal class.

The second class is intended for inmates of superior and the fourth for those of inferior moral qualities.

The first class is intended for inmates of whom it may reasonably be expected that after their discharge they will provide for their maintenance by their own labour.

Article 47.

Persons committed to the custody of the State and placed in a labour colony shall be first placed in the third class, except as regards the special cases dealt with in Article 51.

Article 48.

There shall be a classification Committee for every labour colony, consisting of the Director as President, and of the Subdirectors, if such exist, one of the clergyman attached, of each confession, a doctor and a teacher as members.

In case a labour colony is divided into several sections which are not situated in the immediate neighbourhood of each other, there shall be a Classification Committee for each section, constituted as far as possible in accordance with the provisions of the preceding paragraph of this Article.

In the case provided for in the second paragraph of Article 39 there shall be one Classification Committee for the various Government labour colonies and it shall be composed of the Chief Director as President, and from each institution the Director and one Subdirector, one of the clergy of each confession, one doctor and one teacher as members.

If there are several Subdirectors, clergy of the same confession, doctors or teachers in the same institution, of whom only one may in accordance with the first and third paragraphs of this article be a member of the Classification Committee, the Minister of Justice shall appoint one of their number as member.

Article 49.

The Classification Committee shall decide whether an inmate shall remain in the class in which he was placed or whether he shall be transferred to another class.

Article 50.

In case of difference of opinion between the Classification Committees as to the class in which a prisoner shall be placed, the General Board shall decide.

Article 51.

Persons who in the ten years preceding the day on which their committal to the custody of the State became binding without option of appeal, have twice or more often been definitely so committed in virtue of this law; persons who in the five years preceding the said day have undergone two or more years imprisonment, whether on one or more convictions; and persons who are committed to the Custody of the State in virtue of Articles 137 bis and 137 ter of the Criminal Code shall be at first placed in the fourth class. The Classification Committee may immediately transfer them for special reasons to the third class.

Article 52.

As a rule only inmates of the second class shall be eligible for transfer to the first class.

Article 53.

Inmates of the second, third and fourth classes shall wear uniform clothing of the institution, and the different classes shall be distinguished from each other by a mark on their clothing, visible externally.

Article 54.

Small privileges may be conceded to the inmates according to class, such privileges being least in the fourth class.

Article 55.

There shall be a segregation depot for men.

The Classification Committee may order an inmate to be placed in this depot on account of repeated or continuous bad conduct.

The depot shall be situated in the Labour Colony of the fourth class or at one of the sections of that Colony and shall be under the jurisdiction of the Director thereof.

The Classification Committee of the Colony or section referred to in the previous paragraph of this article may order an inmate to be replaced in one of the classes on account of improved conduct.

A person placed in the depot may, if the Classification Committee there think proper, be interned in a separation room for a period not exceeding six months.

SUBSECTION III.

INSTRUCTION AND RELIGIOUS CARE OF INMATES.

Article 56.

The inmates of the Government labour colonies shall with personal exceptions, receive instruction in reading, writing and arithmetic.

In special cases instruction may also be given in other branches of knowledge.

Article 57.

In each Government labour colony, there shall be as a rule a clergyman of the Protestant and one of the Roman Catholic faith, exclusively attached to the Colony.

A catechist (instructor in religious knowledge) may be appointed in place or as assistant to the Protestant clergyman.

Clergy of the Jewish faith shall be attached to the labour colonies so far as may be necessary.

Article 58.

Inmates shall attend the religious services and the instruction in religious matters unless they obtain express exemption.

SUBSECTION IV.

LABOUR.

Article 59.

Industrial and manufacturing work shall be carried on in the Government labour colony of the fourth class as a rule, and the work shall be made as profitable as possible.

Article 60.

The same but with less vigour shall be the case in the labour colony of the third class.

Agricultural labour shall also be carried on in this class.

Article 61.

In the labour colony of the second class an endeavour shall be made to cause the inmates to carry on remunerative work as far as possible, but their comfort shall be taken into consideration to a greater extent.

Agricultural labour shall also be carried on in this class.

Article 62.

So far as the arrangements of internal service may require it, all the inmates in the Segregation Depot and in the labour colonies of the fourth, third and second classes shall do household work.

Article 63.

The Government labour colony of the first class shall be divided into two sections, one for industrial and manufacturing work, and the other for agricultural work.

In this class the main endeavour shall be to give the inmates instruction which may be useful to them, and the remunerativeness of the work shall be a minor consideration.

Inmates of this class may be engaged in household work for some houses each day.

Article 64.

In the third and more particularly in the fourth class use shall be made of mechanical power in connection with the inmates' work, when this may conduce towards increasing the output and to the profitable application of their labour; in the second and more particularly in the first class mechanical power shall be used only so far as is necessary for the instruction of the inmates.

As regards agricultural labour, care shall be taken that whenever seasonal or weather conditions render such labour impossible, other work shall be carried on.

Article 65.

One expert shall be appointed to supervise the industrial and manufacturing work in all the Government labour colonies, and one to supervise the agricultural work.

Article 66.

Work in the labour colonies shall be carried on chiefly for the supply of requisites for the Government service.

Article 67.

Persons of the first and second classes may, with due regard to the principles laid down in Article 45, last paragraph, Articles 61, 63 and 68, be given work to do outside the institution, under the supervision of one or more officers.

Article 68.

An inmate is bound to do the work allotted to him in accordance with the regulations in force.

The normal period of labour shall be ten hours daily. Work shall not be carried on on Sundays and the recognised Christian festivals, except so far as may be required in the interest of the Service.

Jews shall be exempted from work on the Sabbath and on their chief festivals.

The time intended for rest at night shall not exceed eight hours daily.

Article 69.

A standard of wages varying in the Segregation Depot and in the different classes shall be adopted for work done; the scale shall be graduated, the lowest rates being paid in the Segregation Depot and the highest in the first class.

Article 70.

The wages earned by inmates shall be their own property.

Such wages shall be divided into "discharge fund" and pocket money.

The latter shall remain in the custody of the Director of the labour colony, but shall be at the disposal of the inmate in accordance with regulations to be drawn upon the subject.

Article 72.

A Post Office Savings Bank book showing deposits to the amount of his pocket money and discharge fund, the latter with deduction as a rule of any expenditure necessary for clothes and cost of travelling, and containing his portrait and, if he can write, his signature, shall be handed to each inmate on discharge.

A Post Office Savings Bank book in the ordinary form may be handed to inmates of the first class, when discharged.

In case an inmate is released conditionally, special stipulations may be made in his certificate of release (ticket of leave) with respect to the release fund and pocket money; it may be stipulated that no payments may be made therefrom for the time being.

Article 73.

The amount entered in the Post Office Savings Bank book, mentioned in the first paragraph of the preceding article, shall not be paid out within periods to be decided by the Classification Committee, a copy of such decision being entered in the book. Such payment shall be made to the discharged inmate in person at any post office in return for a receipt from him, if the book contains his signature.

The Classification Committee may modify their decision, as above, at the request of the discharged inmate on special grounds, and if necessary may allow the whole amount to be paid at once.

Article 71.

Damage caused wilfully by an inmate may be recovered from either his discharge fund or his pocket money.

The discharge fund shall be inalienable in other respects and shall not be liable to seizure.

SUBSECTION V.

DISCIPLINARY PUNISHMENTS.

Article 74.

The infliction of the following disciplinary punishments is allowed:—

- (1) seclusion in a completely dark cell;
- (2) being placed in irons;
- (3) seclusion in an ordinary punishment cell;
- (4) seclusion in an ordinary cell;
- (5) being placed on bread and water, instead of ordinary rations;
- (6) being deprived of work, of the enjoyment of the open air, of reading, receiving visits, writing or receiving letters, of access to the canteen and other privileges.

More than one of these punishments may be inflicted simultaneously.

The punishment provided in (1) shall not be inflicted for more than 48 hours.

The punishments provided in (2), (3) and (5) shall not be inflicted for more than four weeks.

The punishments provided in (4) shall not be inflicted for more than six months.

In case the punishment provided in (5) is inflicted for more than two days, it shall be applied on alternate days only.

Access to the open air may not be withheld for more than seven days.

Article 75.

A punishment shall not be inflicted unless the offender has been heard by the person determining the punishment.

SUBSECTION VI.

PROVISIONS IN CASE INMATES ARE RICH OR UNABLE TO WORK FROM OTHER CAUSES.

Article 76.

Persons suffering from lunacy or serious nerve troubles, of mental or physical defects and serious or infectious diseases, who have been committed to the custody of the State, may on the instructions of the Minister of Justice be transferred to a Lunatic Asylum, a Hospital, or other institution for the treatment of such persons, and be maintained there at the cost of the State for the time being.

The costs of such transfer shall be borne by the State.

Article 77.

If it shall appear that a person committed to the custody of the State is incapacitated from labour from

other causes than temporary illness, he shall be maintained in a State Infirmary by order of the Minister of Justice after consultation with the Classification Committee.

The cost of such maintenance shall be recovered by the State from the Commune, which would have had to meet the cost of maintenance in virtue of the law for regulating the Care of the Poor, if the inmate of the Colony had been a pauper lunatic.

The amount of such costs per *capita* and per *diem* shall be determined by Royal Decree. They may be recovered by the Commune from the income and property of the inmate, or if these are insufficient, from his relatives by blood or marriage, who are bound to contribute to his support in virtue of Articles 376, 377, 378 and 383 of the Civil Code. Costs which cannot be thus recovered shall be considered as expenditure on behalf of the Pocr.

If no Commune in the Netherlands is bound to meet the cost of maintenance in accordance with the provisions of the third (*sic*) paragraph of this Article, such cost shall be borne by the State.

Article 41 of the law for the regulation of the State Supervision of Lunatics and the third chapter and Article 70 of the law for regulating the Care of the Poor are applicable in these cases.

The charges which in accordance with this Article are to be borne by a Commune may be wholly or partially transferred by Royal Decree to the charge of the State in accordance with rules to be laid down in General Administrative Regulations.

A person committed to the custody of the State, who is maintained in a State Infirmary, shall be unconditionally discharged, in accordance with Article 88, if the administration of the Commune mentioned in the second paragraph undertakes that other arrangements to be approved by the Minister of Justice shall be made for the care of such person.

SUB-SECTION VII.

GENERAL REGISTER OF PERSONS COMMITTED TO THE CUSTODY OF THE STATE.

Article 78.

A general register shall be kept in the Government Labour Colony of the third class, and a record shall be kept therein of each person committed to the custody of the State, under a separate heading.

The Register shall consist of sheets which shall be signed by the Director of the Colony and kept in alphabetical order.

On the sheet referring to each person committed there shall be recorded *inter alia* any decisions affecting him arrived at by the magistrate in virtue of the present law, any disciplinary punishments inflicted on him during his incarceration and a notification of his discharge whether conditional or not.

SUB-SECTION VIII.

EMPLOYMENT AGENTS.

Article 79.

One or more employment agents shall be appointed; they shall be subordinate to the President of the Classification Committee of the First Class.

They shall endeavour to find work outside the labour colony for inmates of the first class with the object of enabling them to provide for their maintenance by their own labour after their discharge.

SUB-SECTION IX.

BALANCE SHEET AND PROFIT AND LOSS ACCOUNT.

Article 80.

The Director of each labour colony shall draw up annually a balance sheet and a statement of the profit and loss of his institution in a form to be specified by the Minister of Justice.

The Minister of Justice shall send a copy thereof to the General Board of Inspection.

SUB-SECTION X.

LABOUR COLONY FOR WOMEN.

Article 81.

There shall be one labour colony for women, to which a Segregation Depot shall be attached.

The provisions of the present law in regard to State labour colonies in general and to State colonies for men shall be applicable thereto.

The principles governing the division of the labour colonies for men into classes and the provisions of Article 79 shall be applied to the labour colony for women only so far as circumstances allow.

SECTION II.

MAINTENANCE UNDER PRIVATE CARE.

Article 82.

The associations, institutions and establishments mentioned in Article 2, which as shown by a written declaration from their Boards of Management submit to such conditions as may be imposed by the Government may, if they declare their readiness to undertake such duties on payment of compensation, if required, be entrusted by the Government during its pleasure with the maintenance of persons committed to the custody of the State, whether they are originally placed in a labour colony or are at once entrusted to such association, institution or establishment.

Article 76 is applicable in such cases.

Article 83.

The conditions to be laid down by the Government shall contain provisions in the interests of the health, morality and education of the persons entrusted to the associations, &c.

The duty of ascertaining that the conditions referred to in the previous paragraph are complied with by the associations, institutions, &c. in question shall be committed to the Minister of Justice, who shall be assisted in this matter by the General Board.

Article 84.

The compensation to be paid by the Government shall be calculated per person and per day.

An advance which shall not be subject to interest may be made by the Government under certain conditions to the associations, institutions or establishments by way of subsidy. A small rate of interest may also be charged.

Article 85.

Proposals that prisoners be confided to the care of an association, institution or establishment and that compensation or subsidy be granted thereto, as referred to in Articles 82 and 84 shall emanate from the Minister of Justice.

Article 86.

The Board of Management of an association, institution, or establishment may, under conditions to be laid down in General Administrative Regulations, decline further to maintain persons entrusted to them by the Government.

The second paragraph of Article 76 is applicable in such cases.

Article 87.

The provisions of Article 77 are applicable in the case it being understood that the Board of Management of the association, institution, or establishment shall have the authorisation therein conferred upon the Classification Committee.

SECTION III.

ANTICIPATION OF DATE OF DISCHARGE.

Article 88.

Persons committed to the custody of the State may be discharged, conditionally or unconditionally, by the Minister of Justice on the proposal of or after consultation with the Classification Committee or the Board of Management of the association, institution or establishment referred to in Article 2.

Article 89.

A ticket of leave (provisional release) may be revoked if the discharged prisoner conducts himself badly or acts in contravention of the conditions laid down in his ticket of leave.

Prisoners discharged conditionally shall be subject to Government supervision.

The arrest of a prisoner provisionally discharged, who conducts himself badly or contravenes the conditions laid down in his ticket of leave, may be ordered by the head of the Communal Police at the place where such prisoner is, or by the Officer of Justice of the arrondissement to which such place belongs, such officials being bound to report the arrest to the Minister of Justice with their reasons without delay.

CHAPTER IV. FINAL PROVISIONS.

Article 90.

All costs incurred in fulfilling the provisions of this law shall be borne by the State, unless the law provides otherwise.

Article 91.

All documents drawn up in virtue of this law shall be exempt from stamp tax and from the formality of registration.

Article 92.

Provisions for giving effect to the provisions of this law shall be laid down in General Administrative Regulations.

Article 93.

This law may be cited as the "Mendicancy Law," with addition of the year and number of the "Staatsblad," in which it appears.

EXPLANATION OF THE ARTICLES OF THE DRAFT BILL FOR THE RESTRAINT OF MENDICANCY AND VAGRANCY.

Article 1. First paragraph.

Considerable difficulty was experienced in drawing up the first paragraph.

The Commission would have liked to have given a satisfactory definition of begging, as well as of vagrancy. It is certainly desirable, when it is possible, accurately to define a legal concept so as to avoid leaving any difficulties which may arise in regard to the application of a law to be settled by the judicature instead of the legislature. The Commission was, however, unable to fix satisfactory definitions of mendicancy and vagrancy, and they did not succeed in finding them elsewhere.

Existing legislation does not give, in Article 432 of the Criminal Code, a definition of mendicancy; the statement that a person begging in public renders himself guilty of "mendicancy" is a legal limitation of punishable mendicancy, but it is not a definition.

A description of vagrancy alone is given, but this does not seem quite accurate. It has given rise to varying explanations; the expression "wander about without means of sustenance" has been explained at one time to mean that it is necessary that the accused person should go from one place to another, whilst at another time it has been held that it is possible to "wander about" within one and the same place, especially if it is a large town such as, for example, Amsterdam.

The Commission is, however, of opinion that in the present case the lack of a definition will not present very serious trouble. The difficulty lies rather in the impossibility of giving a definition which will cover all cases, than in recognising actual cases as they occur. Mendicancy and vagrancy are terms which are clear to everyone. As the Commission proposes to punish "work-shy" mendicants and vagrants, but to help those beggars and vagrants, who are not unwilling to work it is clear that the expressions "mendicancy" and "vagrancy" in the meaning of the present law should not be limited in their application. Too great restrictions must not be placed on the assistance to be rendered to unfortunate persons who are obliged by necessity to ask for alms; begging interferes with the proper provision for the poor, and if it occurs on a public road is also a violation of public order.

It is, however, clear that indigent persons who apply for relief to a charitable institution or an establishment for assisting the poor must not be regarded as begging, any more than those who make their necessity known to their deacon or poor-visitor and ask for help; such persons are applying to the proper quarters, but those who knock at the doors of houses and ask for alms are not applying to the right source and must therefore be regarded as begging.

Vagrancy has also to be distinguished from migration to another town merely to seek for work. The unfortunate wanderer who first travels to one and then to another town in order to find work is a vagrant in the meaning of the draft law; he must be assisted to recover a proper position in the community. But persons who do not wander about, but finding themselves without means of support betake themselves to another town to seek work are not vagrants.

Cases will of course occur on the boundary line which will offer peculiar difficulties. It is left to the prudence of the magistrate who has the actual facts before him to distinguish the mendicant and the vagrant.

The proposed law allows the magistrate considerable latitude in deciding according to the circumstances of the case, whether the accused should, or should not be committed to the custody of the State.

The magistrate is by no means bound to commit to the custody of the State a beggar or vagrant who has not

committed any punishable act of mendicancy or vagrancy if he considers that his sojourn in the labour colony would not further the end in view. It might be that that end could much better be reached in another way, that a suitable situation can be found for him in the place where he lives or elsewhere, or that charitable persons will help the man on. It is also conceivable that to send a man to a labour colony would operate so much to the disadvantage of his family that the cure would be worse than the disease. In cases where the Commission proposes to allow so large a degree of latitude to the magistrate, it does so in the conviction that the proper application of the law is thereby furthered in the interests of society and of the individual.

But further difficulties were experienced in drafting this Article. The Commission originally drew up the first paragraph as follows:—"Mendicants and vagrants, may, in accordance with the provisions of this law, be committed by the magistrate to the custody of the Government." The suitability of this wording lay in the fact that, as the character and status of the offender are usually of preponderating influence, these were clearly made the decisive factors. The Commission feared, however, that in practice difficulties might arise; might not a magistrate consider himself bound in view of this wording to institute an extensive enquiry in each case in order to be assured that the person in question was "a mendicant" or "a vagrant"? Although such enquiries might be very useful in individual cases, it was thought that, in view of the great number of beggars and tramps and the great amount of work which devolves on the police and the magistrates in consequence, such an enquiry should not be demanded as a regular thing. In most cases the enquiry would be entirely superfluous. The magistrate can even from a single incident, *e.g.*, a man clad in rags asks for alms from an unknown passer-by on a public thoroughfare, readily draw his conclusion that that man is begging, without further enquiry being necessary as to the character of the offender or the status he possesses.

A further objection, and we should say the most serious, to the wording as originally drafted, lies in the fact that if it is enough to be a mendicant or a vagrant, proceedings can be taken against a man who at any given moment is committing no cognisable act, neither begging, nor wandering at large, who for example is sitting quietly at home and in the immediately preceding days has done nothing which would bring him within the purview of the law, but against whom the State takes action on the ground of a status which he has acquired. In such cases he has not to defend himself against statements of definite acts committed on a certain day, at a certain time, and at a specified place; he has to meet the accusation of the existence of a status, a vague conception.

The words chosen by the Commission require an act to be definitely stated to have been committed, "Persons who commit an act of mendicancy or vagrancy." The Official taking action in the matter must therefore adduce a definite act before the Court and the offender can answer the charge.

A further observation in conclusion: the Commission has chosen a wording which at first sight seems somewhat strange. Such a phrase as "Persons who commit an act of mendicancy or vagrancy" is not elegant, and is not usual in the jurisprudence of the Netherlands. The Commission, however, were obliged to use the wording in question as they could not adopt the style of wording which usually occurs, in the Criminal Code for example, "Persons who beg or tramp," as linguistic reasons are opposed to the use of the word "tramp." For the sake of uniformity an equivalent expression for "begging" has been found.

Article 1, Second paragraph.

Amongst beggars and vagrants in disguise are included persons who publicly practise the calling of a ballad singer or street musician. It is clear that amongst such persons are many who are not mendicants or vagrants in disguise. On the contrary, itinerant street bands and organ grinders often find in the exercise or the calling of street musicians a very decent means of livelihood. The contributions collected by such musicians are not alms; they are voluntary payments by the public in return for the music given.

It should be observed that in the arrangement they propose, the Commission will not encroach on the territory of the municipal regulations governing the exercise of the calling of street musicians or ballad singers, the exercise of which is usually dependent on a license to be obtained from the municipality. The Commission does not touch this question and the jurisdiction of the municipal legislator is not prejudiced: only mendicancy and vagrancy in disguise are affected.

The provisions under (b) in the second paragraph are directed against persons who allow a child who is under their parental authority or guardianship or who is entrusted to their charge, to beg or commit one of the acts assimilated to begging. This stipulation is necessary in order to remove the gross abuses which exist in this respect, abuses which, when the bill becomes law, would rather be increased as a result of the far-reaching provisions proposed, if they were not dealt with by some such stipulation as the present, as otherwise the beggar or tramp would get his children to beg on his behalf even more than is at present the case.

The above-mentioned provision of (b) is all the more necessary as the bill does not touch the domain of criminal law, and Article 47 of the Criminal Code is therefore not applicable.

Article 3 and 4.

In virtue of Article 434 of the Criminal Code, beggars and vagrants may be placed in a Government labour colony for a period not exceeding three years.

In the same spirit the Commission proposes to fix the period of committal to the custody of the State at three years. It may, however, happen that after the expiry of that period the condition of the inmate is such that there is no prospect of his being able to secure a proper livelihood for himself in ordinary society. It would be injudicious to allow an inmate to leave the labour colony without taking his future into account, so long as there is the possibility, and indeed in many cases the probability, that he will again be committed to the custody of the State within a very short time. The short period of liberty which he enjoys will usually be spent in expending his discharge fund, preferably in drunkenness and immorality as often actually happens with men discharged from Veenhuizen.

For these reasons the Commission considers it desirable to allow the magistrate authority to extend the period of committal to the custody of the State twice for two years at a time.

After the inmate has thus been deprived of his freedom for seven years, in some cases against his will, his liberty has to be restored to him unless he considers that it is not in his interest to be released, or fears that his release would lead to his ruin again, and consequently himself applies for an extension of the period of his committal. There are prisoners in Veenhuizen who have been admitted twenty times or more, showing that they are unable to live an independent life and desire nothing better than to remain and work in the colony, although from weakness of character they neglect to obtain such work when they are at large, or else are unable to obtain work; this consideration shows that provisions must be drafted so that such persons shall not be forced to leave, and thus be led to become beggars or tramps again, not infrequently with the intention of being re-arrested.

It may happen that discharge from a labour colony takes the character of a furlough to squander the release fund. Many prisoners are released who have no serious intention of looking for work, but are determined to be re-arrested after they have run through their money.

The Commission did not feel free to adopt the provisions of the Belgian law which fixes the maximum period of committal to the custody of the State definitely as seven years, but they preferred to allow the magistrate to decide at the end of three years whether an extension is desirable or not.

The régime adopted in the draft law also allows an inmate to be discharged before the expiry of the period

for which he has been committed. (See *inter alia* Articles 88 and 89 as to antedating discharge.)

Article 6.

The provisions of this Article are entirely in accordance with the fifth paragraph of Article 39 septies of the Criminal Code. Amongst persons between 16 and 18 there are some who can only be regarded as children, and others who must be considered adults; in these cases complete liberty must be left to the magistrate.

Articles 6-37.

As begging, vagrancy and other acts assimilated thereto are not regarded as criminal acts, the Code of Commercial Procedure is not applicable to the legal proceedings to be taken in such cases, and the Commission had therefore to draw up new regulations.

Their proposals are very simple; in proof of this, let us follow briefly the procedure in the case of a beggar or vagrant, who himself asks to be arrested, and who in the opinion of the Officer of Justice should be committed to the custody of the State. Such cases are by far the most numerous.

A police officer ascertains the fact, arrests the offender, brings him before the Assistant Officer of Justice, unless he himself has that rank. The Assistant Officer hears the offender and orders his reception into a house of detention. The Officer of Justice to whom the documents relative to the case must be sent, applies for an extract from the Register of Births, the Penal Register and the General Register mentioned in Article 78 of the Draft Bill.

As a rule a further enquiry is not necessary, and the Officer of Justice transmits the documents with his application to the President of the Court of Justice. The President or a Magistrate designated by him, ascertains from the *procès verbal* whether the act in question has been committed or not, and gives his decision, which ends in this case with the committal of the prisoner to the custody of the State. The decision is notified to the offender. In such a simple case there is from the nature of things no appeal.

The conditions are different, however, if there is a divergence or conflict of opinion. The enquiry, whether by the Officer of Justice or by the President of the Court of Justice or the Magistrate taking his place, must then be more exhaustive.

The chief guarantee of very careful treatment lies in the fact that the Officer of Justice or the offender may appeal to the Court of Justice, and that the more summary action by the President is then followed by proceedings before the Court of Justice, which from the nature of the case are more exhaustive and take place in public.

It has not been required that the proceedings before the President of the Court of Justice should take place in public as this would entail a great increase of work. The beggar and vagrant who has been arrested is as a rule in the House of Detention, which in many places is not in the immediate neighbourhood of the building where the Court of Justice is held. The President may at any time best suited to himself, which need not be previously fixed, have a succession of prisoners brought before him for hearing in the House of Detention. On the other hand, if a public hearing is necessary, this must necessarily take place in the Courthouse, and if publicity means anything, the proceedings must take place at an hour previously determined and announced. It is clear that this course would take up too much of the President's time, or of his substitutes, both of whom always have many duties to attend to. This, however, should not be sufficient ground for the provision, if it were not justifiable on other grounds. But there are no legal reasons for requiring publicity; the application of an administrative measure is in question, not a law suit; there are no contending parties, no plaintiff, no defendant, no prosecutor and no accused. Under the Lunacy Law, which also deprives persons of their liberty, there are no public proceedings; everything is done in the magistrate's room, and rightly so.

If, therefore, even the examination and decision in appeal cases took place in the Magistrate's room and not in open Court, such a course might well be defended. If, however, the Commission prefers that appeal cases should be dealt with in public, the only reason is that in such cases there is as a rule a difference of opinion, and in that event public proceedings offer a greater guarantee that the case shall be properly dealt with.

The régime proposed by the Commission should not be compared with the Code of Criminal Procedure; if

a comparison is wanted it should be sought in regulations of an administrative nature such as the Lunacy Law. The Belgian law, the procedure under which appears to the Commission to be too simple, only provides that the vagrant (beggar) "shall (may) be arrested and brought before the police court" (Arts. 8 & 9); that the cantonal magistrates "shall ascertain the identity, age, physical condition, mental state and conduct of life of persons brought before them," etc. (Art. 12); and finally "They (the cantonal magistrates) shall commit to the custody of the Government," etc. (Art. 13). The Belgian law, which makes no provisions for appeal, is thus much more summary than the proposals of the Commission.

The magistrate must not be restricted as to the method in which he arrives at a judgment and should not be bound to give reasons for his decision; this is the case in other administrative regulations (Lunacy Law, Accident legislation, draft regulations as to Administration Action in matter of right).

Article 6.

In this article and in several subsequent articles the "presumed offender" is for the sake of brevity called the "offender"; owing to the lack of a single word in our language to express what is required the Commission thought it best to use "offender." In Article 39 and 40 of the Code of Criminal Procedure the word "offender" is also used in this sense. The use of the word "suspected" is not considered desirable as it is too suggestive of criminal law.

The arrest of the offender is not required as a *sine qua non*. Often the beggar or vagrant himself desires to be arrested just because he is just then feeling the want of a roof most. Arrest is the necessary, almost indispensable, preliminary to committal to State custody. Circumstances are, however, conceivable in which arrest is not desirable. For example, the father of a family is continually begging; before arresting him, measures should be taken to provide for his family; in such cases to deprive him of his freedom immediately, would only increase the misery of the children. Latitude must therefore be allowed so that the arrest need not take place, at the time of the preliminary enquiry, *i.e.*, not immediately.

Article 24 also empowers the Court in view of any change in circumstances to order, at any stage of the case, the arrest of the father, in case he has been allowed to remain at liberty. On the other hand, provision must be made against any tendency to a too great readiness to send persons accused to the House of Detention. Accordingly, in virtue of Article 24 the liberation of a person arrested may be ordered at any stage in the case.

The periods of time fixed in this Article and the following one are very short. They are given as maxima but in practice the permission to approach the maximum time allowed will only be used in very exceptional cases. To take a single example, according to the Article, a person arrested must be brought before the Officer of Justice or the Assistant Officer within 48 hours; usually, however, this will take place within an hour or two after the arrest.

The provisions of the proposed law on this point again deviate from those of the Belgian law. In Belgium according to the provisions of the constitution, a cantonal magistrate must give sentence within 24 hours in the case of a beggar or vagrant brought before him. This gives rise to considerable difficulties, although an endeavour has been made to avoid them by means of a "casier judiciaire central" for beggars and tramps to be kept at the Ministry of Justice from which the cantonal magistrate applies for and receives information by telegraph. It is evident that very little advantage is obtained from this; it is practically impossible to complete 50 per cent. of the enquiries within 24 hours and it is worthy of attention that in the Memorandum issued by the Government in 1900 as to the working of the Hoogstraeten-Wortel House of Refuge and the Beggars' Colony at Merxplas, the expedient is recommended to the magistrate, who cannot complete his enquiries within 24 hours, of postponing his decision by "setting the person arrested at liberty provisionally" (Art. 11 of the Belgian Law). In Belgium this provision of the constitution prevents any other arrangement; happily this obstacle does not exist in the Netherlands, and the Commission therefore thought they might fix rather longer periods as security for proper investigation.

Article 8. First paragraph.

If access could be had in any other way to institutions distributed over the whole country, it would have been preferable not to make use of the Houses of Detention. To avoid creating a wrong impression, it would have been better not to receive beggars and vagrants into buildings in which suspected criminals are placed. In view, however, of the very considerable cost that would be involved the Commission could not venture to purpose the establishment of special institutions for the purpose. This would hardly have been practicable, as an institution of the kind would have to be established at the seat of every Arrondissement Court, and although the number of beggars and tramps is very large, many of these institutions would repeatedly stand empty. It must also be remembered that in future the periods of committal will, owing to the provisions for their extension, have, as a rule, a much longer duration than three years, and the number of arrests and proceedings before the magistrates will decrease.

Besides, the use of Houses of Detention proposed in the draft is in agreement with the character which the law accords to them. In addition to persons who are to be brought before the criminal judges, persons arrested for civil debts, lunatics and foreigners who are to be conveyed across the frontiers are also received into these institutions. According to the second paragraph of Article 3 of the Law of January 3rd, 1884, *Staatsblad* No. 3, the Houses of Detention are also intended for the "maintenance and reception of all others, the custody or arrest," etc., of whom "has been ordered by the public authorities, or takes place in virtue of a sentence or decision of a magistrate."

Article 8. Second paragraph.

In nearly all cases the period of thirty days for which the order of detention is in force, even if appeal has been made, should be more than sufficient. Cases are, however, conceivable in which, for example, extensive enquiries at home or abroad are necessary to establish the identity of the person detained, so that an extension for a single period is necessary, and opportunity for this has been given in the final stipulations of this Article.

Article 10.

The production of an extract from the Register of Births is desirable with a view to the proper working of the Penal Register and of the General Register provided for in Article 78. Without a birth certificate there is always a possibility of doubt that the Penal Record or the sheet from the General Register does not refer to the offender in question.

Article 12.

The Commission consider it very desirable that in the first place the decision should be made by a single judge. The cantonal magistrate would naturally be designated for this, as in Belgium, if there were not preponderating objections against this. As has been already said, in Belgium a decision must be arrived at within 24 hours, but in this respect the Commission does not, for the reasons stated above, consider it desirable to follow the Belgian law. According to the arrangements proposed, the preliminary investigation will in many cases necessitate the detention of the prisoner in the House of Detention, if only for a few days. With a few exceptions, however, there are no Houses of Detention at the places where cantonal magistrates are stationed, and for this reason the preliminary investigation cannot be brought within the functions of these magistrates. On the other hand, there are Houses of Detention at all places where there are Arrondissement Courts of Justice. The greatest objection to the proposed arrangement is that it imposes work on the Presidents of the Court, who as a rule are fully occupied already. To meet this objection it is provided in Article 17 that the President may be replaced by an ordinary judge. Article 15 of the Civil Code contains a similar provision.

Article 16.

This article is necessary in order to prevent foreigners either being maintained for long periods in the labour colonies or being able to return unpunished after being conveyed by the police across the frontiers of the kingdom; this provision makes it possible to apply Art. 179 of the Criminal Code.

Article 18.

The last sentence of this Article prevents a person at liberty, who has been committed to the custody of the State but succeeds in escaping service of the judgment, having to be again set free, after he is eventually traced, owing to his notifying an appeal or action before the Court of Cassation. As often happens in the case of sentences *in contumaciam* in criminal cases, the offender appeals against the sentence solely in order to regain his freedom temporarily.

Article 25.

No provision is made for annulment of a decision on account of non-compliance with formalities prescribed under penalty of the action being void, as no formalities are prescribed under this penalty.

As regards the third paragraph reference is made to the remarks in connection with Article 18.

Article 29.

The question gave rise to some consideration as to which magistrate should be empowered to deal with the question of extending the period of committal to State custody, *i.e.*, the magistrate within whose jurisdiction the prisoner in question is detained or the magistrate who originally decided the case.

The advantage arising from the fact that the magistrate within whose jurisdiction the prisoner is detained could readily obtain full information by a personal visit is counterbalanced by the fact that a magistrate within whose jurisdiction a great labour colony, such, for example, as Veenhuizen, is situated would have so many cases of extension to deal with that there would be a danger of each case receiving superficial treatment only. Further, the question of extending the period of committal would mainly be decided from information obtainable from documents, and frequently the investigation would be limited to such material. The magistrate will only make use of the authorisation accorded to him by the third paragraph of Article 30 in isolated cases: and even then the magistrate who made the original decision could very well undertake any further enquiry. As there are no insuperable difficulties in the way of empowering that magistrate to deal with the question of extensions, the Commission propose to entrust him with that duty.

Articles 38-81.

In these Articles the principal provisions respecting the management, supervision and arrangement of the Government labour colonies are given. General Administrative Regulations will decide such further details as to the working of these institutions as may be necessary to give effect to the law.

At present these provisions are laid down in article 8 of the law of January 3rd, 1884, Staatsblad No. 3., and the law of April 14th, 1886, Staatsblad No. 62., whilst the further details are regulated by the General Administrative Regulations of August 31st, 1886, Staatsblad No. 159.

When the Children's laws were drawn up the provisions in the two above-mentioned laws which apply to the Reformatory Schools were deleted from those laws, and inserted in the Children's Laws; the provisions were further elaborated in the General Administrative Regulations of June 5th, 1905, Staatsblad No. 209.

It appeared desirable to the Committee to follow this example; it is always advisable to collect relevant material as far as possible into a single law, unless there are serious objections to such a course, which is not the case in the present instance.

Articles 40 and 41.

These provisions have been drafted in accordance with the provisions of the Children's Laws.

Article 48. Second paragraph.

This case may occur in connection with the provisions of the first paragraph of Article 63.

Article 68. First paragraph.

As Article 32 of the Criminal Code is to be repealed and Article 14 of that code is therefore no longer applicable, this stipulation is necessary.

Article 74.

This Article has been drafted in accordance with the existing condition of things, disciplinary punishments being at present fixed by law: the constitution of the

Council of Discipline and further regulations are determined by Royal Decree (*see* Article 20 of the law of April 14th, 1886, Staatsblad No. 62 and Article 107 *et seq.*, of the General Administrative Regulations of August 31st, 1886, Staatsblad No. 159).

Article 76.

These provisions are also in accordance with the corresponding provisions in the Children's Laws (Article 17, of the Law of February 12th, 1901, Staatsblad No. 64).

Article 77.

If the Government labour colonies are not to lose the character of *labour* colonies, the condition must be adhered to that only persons who are able to work shall remain in there.

On the other hand it would not be proper simply to discharge persons unable to work, if only for the reason that a great number of aged and decrepit beggars and vagrants would then be thrown on the public streets.

Such persons are proper objects for care under the local poor law administration. It is, however, well known that many communes, especially the very small ones, do not properly fulfil their duties in this respect, and the Commission therefore drafted the scheme proposed, which is similar to that in the Lunacy Law.

If the requirement is not adhered to that persons committed to the State custody must be able to work, there is good reason to fear that the Government labour colonies may become approximate in character to institutions for the aged and infirm.

The communal authorities also, who were not ready to expend sufficient sums on the aged or infirm under their care would, by neglecting to make proper arrangements for their relief, force them to take to begging and vagrancy, and thus drive them to the labour colonies. At present there are many aged and infirm at Veenhuizen employed in picking oakum or in similar occupation, who were regarded by the Courts as being able to work; the magistrate, it appears, arrived at this conclusion mainly out of pity for them, and came to the benevolent decision to send them to Veenhuizen because there was no other way out of the difficulty.

The object of the sixth paragraph is to enable concessions, which are perhaps necessary to be made to poor communes.

Article 78.

The Penal Register which is kept by the Registrar of the Court of Justice in each arrondissement, can, and may from the nature of the case record only punishment inflicted by sentence. Decisions and sentences in virtue of this law, which do not entail any punishments, would therefore not be rightly placed in the Register. It is, however, of the greatest importance that the magistrate, before deciding the case of a beggar or vagrant should know whether he is a recidivist, and if so, what his conduct in the labour colony was. It is therefore necessary to keep a General Register, which is indeed indispensable, so that some knowledge of the past of a person committed to State custody is available with a view to his proper treatment.

Article 84.

The expression "compensation" and not "grant" is used in the first paragraph, for the reason that the amounts paid are really in the nature of a compensation, since the State transfers to a third party the care and maintenance of persons committed to State custody, who should be maintained and cared for at the cost of the State.

PROPOSED AMENDMENT IN THE CRIMINAL CODE.*

The two following articles to be added after Article 137:—

Article 137 bis.

Mendicancy and vagrancy committed from unwillingness to work shall be punishable with imprisonment not exceeding one year.

The same penalty shall be inflicted on persons who from unwillingness to work either: hawk worthless articles or articles practically worthless; who publicly exhibit diseased parts of their body or bodily defects, or publicly announce the existence of disease or bodily defects; who publicly practise the calling of a ballad singer or street musician or give a performance of any kind, or who publicly exhibit articles or animals—provided all or any of these acts is committed in order to elicit charity or obtain alms—or intentionally allow a child beneath

* A list is also given of several minor alterations which will have to be made in sundry laws and Royal decrees if the proposals of the Commission become Law.

the age of eighteen, who is under their parental authority or guardianship or has been committed to their care, to beg or commit any of the above-mentioned acts.

Article 137 ter.

In case a person is condemned to imprisonment for one year or less for committing any of the misdemeanours set forth in the preceding Article or in Articles 230, 310-312, 317, 318, 321-323, 326 and 416 of the Criminal Code, the magistrate may, if he has good reason to apprehend that the prisoner will commit one of the acts set forth in the preceding Article or in Article 1 of the Mendicancy Law, commit him to the custody of the State to be treated in accordance with the provisions of the Mendicancy Law after undergoing the penalty inflicted.

Articles 432, 433 and 434 to be repeated.

EXPLANATION OF THE PROPOSED AMENDMENTS IN THE CRIMINAL CODE.

Article 137 bis.

The Commission thinks that a reference to the "General Considerations*" and the explanation of the

* Not translated.

first paragraph of Art. 1., of the draft Bill for the Restraint of Mendicancy and Vagrancy will suffice in explanation of this Article.

Article 137 ter.

It often happens that an indigent person may commit a relatively unimportant misdemeanour in order to obtain shelter, and that the magistrate anticipates that, after undergoing the short term of punishment inflicted, the prisoner on his discharge will take to begging or vagrancy, often from necessity. This article deals with such cases, and empowers the magistrate to commit the prisoner to the custody of the State for treatment in accordance with the provisions of the Mendicancy Law, after he has undergone the punishment inflicted.

The proposal is restricted to cases in which the prisoner is sentenced to one year's imprisonment or less, as in the case of imprisonment of long duration the condition of the prisoner may be altered after the expiry of the punishment; the magistrate cannot judge of this *à priori*, and the prisoner then may have a fair discharge fund at his disposal, so that he is better able to rehabilitate himself without assistance.

DRAFT BILL FOR COMBATTING DRUNKENNESS.

Article 1.

Drunkards who are unable to manage their affairs, who expose themselves or their family to ruin or have brought about their own ruin or that of their family, or who endanger the safety of them, may be placed under guardianship.

Requests that a person be placed under such guardianship may only be made by a blood relation in the direct line, by a collateral relation up to and including the fourth degree, or in the case of a married person by the husband or wife.

The Public Prosecutor's Office may also demand the imposition of guardianship.

Article 2.

Except so far as deviations therefrom are provided in this law, persons are placed under such guardianship in the same way and with the same results, and such guardianship is removed in the same way, as is prescribed in the Civil Code in the case of persons squandering their means.

It is not necessary that the person whom it is desired to place under guardianship be examined, if he fails to appear after being duly summoned.

All legal actions to be taken in virtue of this law in regard to persons under guardianship shall be taken by the magistrate, who is also empowered to remove the guardianship.

Article 3.

On the occasion of applications or official demands that a person be placed under guardianship, a statement giving reasons issued by some person duly authorised to practise medicine in the Netherlands, and showing that the person whom it is desired to place under guardianship is a drunkard, must be produced; such statement must have been drawn up not more than seven days before the application or demand is presented.

Article 4.

Requests for the removal of the guardianship may be made by persons authorised to apply for the imposition of such guardianship, by the person under guardianship himself or by his guardian.

Article 5.

The Court of Justice when issuing a decision that a person be placed under guardianship, or subsequently, may order such person to be placed in an Institution for Reclaiming Drunkards.

The Court of Justice may issue such order at the request either of anyone authorised to apply for the imposition of guardianship or of the guardian, or on demand from the Public Prosecutor's Department.

The Court may also order a person to be placed provisionally in such institution, pending a judicial investigation.

Such order may be withdrawn by the Court at the request of any person authorised to request the imposition of guardianship, or of the person under guardianship, or on the demand of the Public Prosecutor's Department. Article 14 is applicable to such cases.

Article 6.

In case a person is condemned to imprisonment for one year or less, whether for any misdemeanour involving a penalty of three months imprisonment or more, with the exception of that mentioned in Article 137 bis of the Criminal Code, or for contravening the fourth paragraph of Article 453 of the Criminal Code, the magistrate may, if it appears from the evidence in the case that the prisoner is a drunkard, order him to be placed in an Institution for Reclaiming Drunkards after the expiring of his sentence.

Article 15 is not applicable in such cases.

Article 7.

If it is thought desirable that any person who has been previously placed under guardianship for reasons other than those set out in Article 1, should be committed to an Institution for Reclaiming Drunkards, [frequently referred to in this translation subsequently as a "reformatory institution"] an order to that effect may be issued by the Court of Justice which originally ordered such person to be placed under guardianship, on the application of any of the persons empowered to apply for the imposition of guardianship as provided in Article 1, or of the guardian, or on official demand of the Public Prosecutors' Department.

A declaration as provided by Article 3 must be produced in connection with such application or demand.

The third and fourth paragraphs of Article 5 are applicable in such cases.

Article 8.

The period for which a drunkard shall be placed in a reformatory institution, and that of the extension as provided in the following Article, shall be one year.

Article 9.

Not more than one month and not less than 14 days before the expiry of the period provided by Article 8, application for an extension may be made by any one empowered to apply for the committal of the person in question to an institution, or a demand therefor may be made by the Public Prosecutor's Department.

In the case provided for by Article 6 the period may be extended by the magistrate who pronounced the sentence, and on demand of the Public Prosecutor's Department. If sentence was pronounced by a magistrate other than the Court of Justice, the period shall be extended by the Court of Justice which dealt with the case in the first instance, or if the sentence was given by a cantonal magistrate, by the Court of Justice in whose jurisdiction the cantonal court is situated.

The application or demand must be accompanied by a declaration giving reasons, from the medical officer, or if there are more than one, from the principal medical officer of the establishment stating that it is desirable to issue an order for the prolonged detention of the drunkard in the institution. If the person detained is absent from the institution on leave in accordance with the provisions of Article 11 of this law, the declaration

may be made by a medical man not attached to the institution, provided he is authorised to practise medicine in the Netherlands.

The medical declarations specified in this Article may not be more than 14 days old at the time the application or demand is made.

The person in regard to whom extension is applied for shall remain in the reformatory institution pending the investigation.

The Court of Justice may order a person committed to such institution to be provisionally set at liberty, on application being made by a person authorised to apply for the imposition of guardianship, by the guardian, or by the person committed or on the demand of the Public Prosecutor's Department. If such committal took place in virtue of Article 6, the order shall be given by the magistrate referred to in the second paragraph of this Article.

Article 10.

A person who is placed for the first time in an Institution for Reclaiming Drunkards may not be detained there for more than 18 months without his consent, unless leave of absence has been granted to him as provided by Article 11.

On the second or subsequent committal to such institution as well as on reception after leave of absence has been revoked, the period of detention shall not exceed three years.

Article 11.

Permission may be accorded to a person detained in an Institution for Reclaiming Drunkards by the medical officer, or, if there are more than one, by the principal medical officer to leave the institution for a definite or indefinite period.

Conditions may be attached to the grant of such permission.

Leave for a definite period may always be extended by the person who granted it.

Leave shall be revoked by the person who granted it whenever it is desirable in the interests of the proper treatment of the drunkard.

Article 12.

The removal of the guardianship legally involves discharge from the institution.

Article 13.

The Court of Justice may discharge a person committed to a reformatory institution from such institution at any time even during the judicial inquiry, either at the request of such person, his guardian or anyone entitled to apply for his committal, or on the demand of the Public Prosecutor's Department.

If the person was so committed in virtue of Article 6, his discharge shall be granted by the magistrate mentioned in the second paragraph of Article 9.

The person on whose application the committal was made must first be heard, or at least be duly summoned to a hearing. If the committal was made on the demand of the Public Prosecutor's Department, that Department must be heard.

Article 14.

The Public Prosecutor's Department shall arrange that immediate effect be given to the order for discharge or for temporary liberation as provided in the last paragraph of Article 9. The decision of the Court of Justice on the subject shall be communicated by the Registrar to the Public Prosecutor's Department in rough form before registration.

Article 15.

In cases of committal or extensions of committal, the Court must hear the person affected thereby. In case a person who is at liberty fails to appear, it is sufficient if he has been duly cited to appear.

The hearing of a person committed may take place in the reformatory institution or the place where such person is to be found during leave of absence.

In order to arrive at a decision in cases of committal to a reformatory institution, of extension of such committal or of discharge from such institution, the Court may summon witnesses to appear or order other evidence to be produced.

Such witnesses are to be summoned in the name of the applicant or the Public Prosecutor's Department. They are bound to appear.

They may be heard on oath or on their word of honour to be taken in accordance with their religious persuasion, or otherwise.

A *procès-verbal* of such hearing is to be drawn up.

The Court of Justice may order any witness or other person to be heard by an Assistant Judge designated for the purpose, or by the cantonal magistrate in whose canton the reformatory institution is situated, or the person committed is to be found during leave of absence.

The Public Prosecutor's Department shall be represented at every hearing, except hearings before a cantonal magistrate.

Hearings shall take place in the judge's room (*i.e.*, not in open court).

Article 16.

Decisions taken or provisions made in virtue of this law shall not be publicly announced; no appeal to a higher court can be made against them, and they shall take provisional effect even though a case has been stated for the Court of Cassation. This provision does not apply to the judicial decisions referred to in articles 2 and 6.

A decision as to placing or refusing to place a person in a Reformatory Institution, given at the same time as an order to place such person under guardianship, shall, however, be publicly announced, and may be appealed against, but only if and at the same time as the guardianship order is appealed against.

Every legal order shall be announced to the person affected in the manner prescribed by Article 4 of the Code of Civil Procedure.

Article 17.

A person committed to a reformatory institution shall be discharged therefrom by the Managing Body, when the medical officer, or if there are more than one the chief medical officer, declares in writing that he considers him to be cured, or when he has spent a full year uninterrupted on leave of absence from the institution.

Article 18.

The question of allowing a person to return to ordinary life whether by discharge or on leave of absence, shall be decided by the Managing Body after consultation if possible with the person who applied for or demanded his committal, or failing such person, with anyone entitled to make an application for his committal.

Article 19.

There shall be one or more Institutions for Reclaiming Drunkards placed under the control of the Minister of the Interior.

Persons ordered by a Court of Justice to an Institution for Reclaiming Drunkards shall be maintained therein, unless they are committed to one of the Institutions mentioned in Article 20 of this Law.

The charges for maintaining persons in a Government Reformatory Institution, so far as they are not borne by the State, shall be determined per day, and per person by Royal Decree.

Article 20.

Institutions for Reclaiming Drunkards which comply with the requirements and conditions to be laid down in General Administrative Regulations, may be designated by Royal Decree, for the reception of drunkards who are ordered by the Courts to be committed to an institution.

Authorisation for the reception of drunkards as above may be withdrawn from an institution if it ceases to fulfil the requirements and conditions laid down, and such failure is not properly rectified within a period to be fixed by the Minister of the Interior.

Article 21.

The Managing Body of an institution, as mentioned in the preceding Article, may, with the approval of the Minister of the Interior cause a person whose committal to an institution was ordered by a Court of Justice to be transferred to a Government Reformatory Institution.

(a) If he disturbs the good order of the institution by continued misconduct.

(b) If his physical or mental condition renders it undesirable for him to continue in the company of the other inmates.

Article 22.

The cost of maintaining in the Reformatory Institutions referred to in Articles 19 and 20, a person committed thereto by order of the Court, as well as the costs of conveying such persons to and fro, and the charges arising from the application of the third paragraph of

Article 23 shall be borne by the person committed himself, or by those who, in virtue of Articles 376, 377, 378 and 383 of the Civil Code, are bound to provide for his maintenance.

If from any cause such payment cannot be recovered in full or in part, the costs shall be borne in full or in part by the commune, which, in virtue of the law for regulating the care of the poor, would have to bear such charges if the person in question were a pauper lunatic.

If such commune cannot be ascertained, the costs shall be borne by the State.

Chapter III. and Article 70 of the above-mentioned Poor Law and Article 41 of the law regulating the State Supervision of Lunatics are applicable in such cases.

The costs which in virtue of this Article should be borne by a commune may be transferred wholly or partly to the State by Royal Decree in accordance with special rules to be laid down in General Administrative Regulations.

Article 23.

Inmates of a Reformatory Institution must conform to the internal regulations of such Institution.

The Managing Body is authorised to order in the interests of discipline, and with the approval of the Medical Officer, or, if there are more than one, of the Principal Medical Officer that an inmate shall be segregated for not more than three successive weeks.

On the advice of the Medical Officer, or, if there are more than one, of the Principal Medical Officer, the Court of Justice may empower the Managing Body to cause an inmate to be received for a period not exceeding three months into a section of a Government Reformatory Institution specially destined for such purposes. If the committal took place in virtue of Article 6, such authorisation shall be granted by the Magistrate mentioned in the second paragraph of Article 9.

The time spent in the special section referred to in the preceding paragraph shall not be taken into account in calculating the period on the expiry of which leave of absence must be granted in accordance with Article 10.

Article 24.

The Officer of Justice may provide for the conveyance of a person to a Reformatory Institution and the return of a person who has exceeded his leave of absence, or has escaped.

The Officer of Justice of the Arrondissement in which the drunkard is temporarily or permanently residing or

in which the institution is situated, is also authorised to take such action.

Article 25.

Drunkards may also be received into Government Reformatory Institutions who desire to be maintained there of their own free will, provided that the room occupied is not required for persons who have to be maintained there in accordance with the second paragraph of Article 19.

Article 26.

Lunatics may not be maintained in an Institution for Reclaiming Drunkards.

Article 27.

The Inspectors of the Government Service for the Inspection of Lunatics and Lunatic Asylums shall in particular be charged with the inspection of Reformatory Institutions, so far as drunkards are maintained therein on an order from the Courts.

They shall at all times have free access to such institutions.

The Officer of Justice shall at undetermined times, but at least once every three months, visit the institutions in his arrondissement in order to ascertain that no persons are illegally detained therein and that the inmates are properly treated.

Article 28.

All legal decisions arrived at in virtue of this law and all requests therefor, with the exceptions of applications for the imposition of guardianship shall be free of stamp tax and from the formality of registration. Copies of legal decisions shall be issued free of charge.

Applications may be made to the Court of Justice by the persons authorised to make such applications without the intermediary of a solicitor.

Article 29.

Provisions for giving effect to the stipulations of this law shall be laid down in General Administrative Regulations.

Article 30.

This law may be cited as the "Law as to Drunkards," with addition of the year and number of the Staatsblad in which it appears.

EXPLANATION OF THE ARTICLES OF THE DRAFT BILL FOR COMBATTING DRUNKENNESS.

Article 1.

This Article regulates the consequences under Civil Law which drunkenness may entail.

As under Dutch law lunacy affords no ground for divorce, the Commission considered it impossible that drunkenness could be made sufficient reason therefor. Besides, if the drunkenness of a person affects the husband or wife very prejudicially, the question of extravagance as dealt with in Article 288 of the Civil Code may perhaps be raised.

Provisions in regard to the parental authority exercised by a drunkard are superfluous, as the Children's Law has already made provisions on that point. If a drunkard is placed under guardianship, such authority is exercised by the husband or wife, or in their absence or inability to act by the guardian.

The only object in view is to withdraw from the drunkard under clearly defined circumstances the opportunity of continuing to give way to his craving for drink, and to cure him. "Under clearly defined circumstances": the idea of freedom under Civil Law naturally involves liberty to do what is right from a moral point of view, as well as actual liberty, within certain limits, to do what is not right when considered from that standpoint. The institution of guardianship or tutelage over minors, as provided by Civil Law, affords an opportunity of limiting the freedom of action of a drunkard; the exact definition of the cases in which it can be applied affords a safeguard against too great an infringement of civil liberty.

The grounds on which a drunkard can be placed under guardianship in accordance with this Article agree with those laid down in the German law.*

* Article 6 of the German civil code contains the description:—"A person who owing to drunkenness cannot manage his affairs, or who exposes himself or his family to penury or endangers the safety of others."

The first ground is that the drunkard is unable to manage his affairs. The object of this clause is to make it possible to place a drunkard under guardianship even if there is no likelihood of his exposing himself or his family to ruin.

The second reason for imposing guardianship on a drunkard is that he exposes himself or his family to ruin or has brought about such ruin. The legislature must first endeavour to prevent ruin, as, if the drunkard is no longer able to provide for his maintenance and that of his family the community will often have to do so. It is clear that in cases where the drunkard has already brought about his ruin or that of his family, guardianship must be imposed. The expression "ruin" must be understood as embracing both financial and moral ruin.

The third ground is that the drunkard endangers the safety of others. The Commission were of opinion that it was not a sufficient reason to place a drunkard under guardianship if he imperilled his own safety, as a drunkard brings himself into danger only too soon, and almost every drunkard might be placed under guardianship on that ground.

The persons who are empowered to apply for the imposition of guardianship over a drunkard are the same as those who may make similar application in the case of a person squandering his means, in virtue of Article 488 of the Civil Code.

The Commission considered whether the intervention of the Public Prosecutor's Department in giving effect to this law should not be limited as far as possible, so as to avoid making it appear that committal to an institution for reclaiming drunkards, which the imposition of guardianship will often entail, was a punishment, and not as it actually is, a remedial measure; and whether that Department should be authorised to demand that a drunkard be placed under guardianship. The Commission feared, however, that action in the

case of drunkards might too often be neglected if the possibility of action by the Public Prosecutor's Department did not afford an incentive to have a drunkard placed under guardianship.

The Commission uses the term "drunkard" intentionally. Like lunacy, drunkenness is a term of wide application, although like lunacy it is not defined in the law. Any definition given, if it were to be too restricted in its bearing, would have to be so wide as to lose all significance.

It has already been shown in the preceding General Considerations* that alcohol affects the mental and physical being of the drunkard to such a degree that it may safely be assumed that as a rule all his actions take place more or less under its influence. It is therefore unnecessary, and might even be dangerous to require, that it should be shown in the sentence of the magistrate that there is a connection between the drunkenness of the person placed under guardianship and his actions. It is only necessary for the magistrate to be convinced that the person in question is a drunkard; this can be verified by the statements of experts on the ground of facts proved or on their own observation and may be clearly shown by facts brought forward in the case.

Article 2.

As the imposition of guardianship on account of improper extravagance is taken as a model in this Article, it follows that the restriction of freedom resulting from the guardianship applies to actual transactions only. A person placed under guardianship on account of drunkenness will thus be able to make any dispositions of will (Article 500 of the Civil Code); the provisions of Article 506 of the Civil Code with reference to the conclusion of a marriage are also applicable to him, but he is not affected by Article 501 of that Code, which permits transactions to be cancelled which took place before the imposition of guardianship, but at the time of which the reasons for the imposition of guardianship were already in existence.

The object of the second paragraph of this article is to prevent the person cited rendering his interrogation and consequently the imposition of guardianship impossible by failing to appear. An omission existing in the Civil Code which has given rise to varying applications of the law is thus remedied.

As regards the question of the Court entitled to remove the imposition of guardianship, the Commission has followed the legal principles which are now in force as regards guardianship, and decided that it shall be the Court in which the domicile of the guardian is situated.

Article 3.

A statement is here provided for similar to that prescribed by Article 16 of the Lunacy Law. Great weight is attached to the circumstance that the statement must contain reasons.

The Commission considered it unnecessary to stipulate that it should be shown in the statement whether it rests on the personal observation of the doctor or on statements made to him; they are of opinion that Article 491 *et seq.* of the Civil Code afford sufficient safeguards in this respect.

Article 4.

As it is not expressly laid down in the Civil Code who can apply for the removal of guardianship previously imposed, it appeared desirable to make provision on the subject here.

Article 5.

The expression "order" is used in this Article in the sense in which it occurs for example in Articles 357 and 1122 of the Civil Code, i.e., in the meaning of "grant authorisation" or "empower." It is really an authorisation which the person obtaining it does not as a rule need to use. It was therefore thought desirable in the present instance, as in the Lunacy Law, to speak of "authorisation." The consideration, however, that a drunkard may be placed in an institution against his will, and that he cannot be compared to a lunatic in this respect, led to preference being given to the expression "order."

It may happen that it is desired to commit a drunkard to a Reformatory Institution and to place him under guardianship at the same time, but it may also be the case that committal does not appear necessary until

later or becomes again necessary after his discharge from the institution; the article therefore speaks of an order being given at the time of the imposition of guardianship or subsequently.

It has already been mentioned that the disadvantages of the system of permitting committal to an institution only in cases where guardianship has previously been imposed, are being experienced to such an extent in Germany that there is already a movement to remove the system of requiring the existence of guardianship as a necessary condition to committal to an institution. The disadvantages are indeed considerable; the case may be prolonged and the person to be placed under guardianship may do all in his power to prevent decisive action, although speedy committal is most desirable in the interests of the drunkard, and his cure may depend to a great extent thereon. Further, when the persons whose duty it is to have a drunkard placed in an institution see how difficult it is to effect their object without considerable delay their zeal in the matter will vanish. In the interests of civil freedom, however, the Commission did not see their way to allowing the imposition of guardianship to lapse to a condition of compulsory committal to an institution. The procedure in the case of imposition of guardianship affords safeguards which could not be obtained in any other way.

The Commission are of opinion that a solution of the difficulties arising from the establishment of a necessary connection between committal to a Reformatory Establishment and the imposition of guardianship is to be found in their proposal to empower the magistrate to order the person on whom it is desired to impose a guardianship to be committed to an institution even while the case is pending. A similar provision occurs in Article 511 of the Civil Code. By that article a magistrate is empowered, in cases of applications for the establishment of guardianship on the ground of undue extravagance, to order the provisional arrest of the person in question, if "immediate necessity" *inter alia* exists. It has been considered whether the same clause should not be used here. It was not, however, thought desirable for the reason that provisional committal must be the rule with a view to the possible cure of the drunkard. There is no doubt, and it appears superfluous to state it expressly in the law, that a magistrate will not order provisional committal when he sees that in all probability there will be no definitive committal whether he has already serious doubts as to the desirability of placing the person concerned in an institution or from other reasons.

As authority is given to order a person to be received provisionally into an institution, power must also be given to order the discharge of a person at any time. It may happen that in dealing further with the case it appears to the magistrate that a definite committal is impossible, and this authorisation further affords a safeguard against possible abuses.

The question was also considered whether besides the compulsory committal of a person placed under guardianship to an institution, and besides voluntary residence there, provision should not be made for compulsory detention at the request of the drunkard himself. The case was put that a drunkard who was persuaded to enter a Reformatory Institution might very soon terminate his stay there; such cases would be prevented by compulsory committal at the drunkard's own request.

Such compulsory committal would render superfluous the imposition of guardianship, which as it has to be notified in a newspaper, may perhaps give rise to difficulties in connection with the return of a reformed drunkard to society. The Commission were, however, of opinion that it is not desirable to place persons willingly under legal compulsion, and that the medical officer in an institution could by moral suasion and by presenting to the patient the possibility of his being placed under guardianship persuade him to consent to remain.

Article 6.

If it appears to a magistrate that a criminal brought before him is a drunkard, he must, if there is cause therefor, be punished, as drunkenness does not as a rule deprive a person of responsibility for his actions; the magistrate may, however, take drunkenness like other considerations into account in determining the extent of the penalty to be inflicted. But in the present instance the magistrate's duty does not end with the infliction of the penalty. It would be short-sighted to inflict a short term of imprisonment only on a 'work-shy' beggar or vagrant or similar delinquent and not to endeavour

* Not translated.

to remove the cause of the evil by forcing him to spend some time in a labour colony. The same is the case as regards drunkards ; a term of imprisonment which from the nature of the case must often be short will seldom remove the cause of the evil and cure them of their drunkenness ; for a cure, or improvement at least a compulsory stay in an inebriates' home would be necessary. A magistrate must not, however, be empowered to send a drunkard to such an institution on account of the committal of every offence. As in ordinary life so many commands and prohibitions are enforceable by the sanction of penal provisions, the possibility of committing drunkards to an institution would occur in many more cases than the Commission considers desirable, and they therefore thought it necessary to make limitations. They were of opinion that authority to commit a person to an institution for drunkards should only be accorded in cases where the fourth paragraph of Article 453 of the Criminal Code was contravened, which will be further treated of in the explanation of the amendment which the Commission propose in that article, and in cases of misdemeanours involving imprisonment for three months or more.

The Commission did not wish this provision to be applied in case of the misdemeanour dealt with in Article 137 bis of the Criminal Code. Experience shows that many beggars and vagrants are drunkards, and it may safely be assumed that incurable drunkards or those whom it is extremely difficult to reclaim are to be found amongst them in large numbers. It may therefore be asked whether it is desirable to fill the Reformatory Institutions with drunken beggars and vagabonds at the expense of drunkards who offer more prospect of a cure, and to make no use of the facilities existing for internment such beggars or in the State labour colonies. In answering this question it must not be forgotten that one of the chief conditions for the cure of drunkenness, namely total abstinence, is complied with in the labour colonies, and that opportunity is also given there for work in fields and woods which is considered to have a most curative effect on drunkards. In answering the question it must also be remembered that in future committal to a labour colony will cease to have a penal character, and that if the recommendations of the Commission are carried out, the inmates of these colonies will be treated with more regard to their individual needs.

The Commission have proposed a further restriction by providing that persons may be committed to reformatory institutions only if the term of imprisonment to which they are sentenced does not exceed one year. The Commission considered there was good ground for fearing that satisfactory results would not be obtained from placing a person in a reformatory institution, if too long a period elapsed between the offence and the commencement of the curative treatment.

It did not appear necessary to stipulate specially that drunkards who are committed by the magistrate to an inebriates' institution should be placed under guardianship. Instead of the safeguard provided by the process of imposing guardianship, the criminal procedure in this case provides an equally effective safeguard. If the magistrate considers it necessary that a drunkard committed to an institution should be placed under guardianship, the provisions of Article 1 must be applied.

The Commission regard the order given by the magistrate not as an authorisation but as a command.

Article 7.

This Article provides for cases in which a person placed under guardianship for *e.g.* undue extravagance becomes a drunkard ; it is not possible to place him under guardianship again on account of drunkenness, and yet it is necessary that he should be committed to an institution for drunkards.

It was not thought necessary to empower expressly a parent or guardian to cause a minor who has contracted habits of drunkenness to be placed in an institution. It was considered that such young persons should not, as a rule, be received into an institution, and that Article 357 of the Civil Code only deals with an extreme case.

Article 8

The conception of drunkenness as a disease presents an obstacle to leaving the duration of the committal to be fixed in each case by the magistrate. A period has therefore been laid down in the law, and applies to the

extension provided by Article 9 as well as to committal ordered in virtue of Articles 5, 6, and 7.

Article 9.

This Article is to a great extent on the same lines as Article 24 of the Lunacy Law. The terms of 14 and 8 days mentioned in that law have, however, often proved too short in practice, and they have therefore been increased to one month, and 14 days ; they would also have been too short in the present case. An independent enquiry by a magistrate as to the desirability of an extension, is even more desirable in the case of drunkards than of lunatics, especially in view of the defective nature of the medical indications.

The Commission considered it desirable to provide for the possibility of extending the period in which persons might be detained in an institution, even if such persons were at the moment on leave of absence. The Commission thought that it might exercise a salutary effect in this case if the possibility of their recall to the institution did not come to too speedy an end. It might, however, happen that when an inmate has been for some time on leave of absence the medical officer of the institution would not be able to issue a certificate, unless the person in question presented himself at the institution, or the doctor visited him. It, therefore, appeared desirable to empower another medical man to issue the certificate. In order to prevent abuses, however, the institution doctor must also retain authority to issue the certificate, and no certificate must be more than 14 days old.

Article 10.

Drunkenness is a disease which often can be cured. Starting from this standpoint, it might be required that a drunkard should be detained in an institution until a cure has been effected. As, however, this might not occur for a long time, if at all, the result would be that the drunkard would be interred for many years or even for his whole life in the institution. The Commission, however, did not feel free to go to such an extreme. The object of the institution must be to render the drunkard more suited to return to society. Whether this object has been attained or not can only be satisfactorily ascertained by allowing him to return once more to society, possibly with certain precautions. This consideration has given rise to the proposal to establish periods of leave of absence, as provided by Article 11. If, however, an inmate in an inebriates' institution feels himself so weak that he does not wish to go out on leave and says so, there is of course no objection against retaining him in the institution ; similarly anyone who considers that he should be detained in a lunatic asylum, may get himself received into an asylum.

The position created by Article 10 will therefore be as follows. If a drunkard is placed for the first time in an institution, he cannot be detained there for more than 18 months without his consent. This term of 18 months, like that of 3 years in cases where a person is received on a second or subsequent occasion, is a maximum for especially serious cases. It may be taken for granted that a doctor will not detain an inmate in the institution any longer than is desirable for his cure, but will test him by allowing him to return temporarily to ordinary society ; the ultimate object of his treatment must be to enable him to return permanently. If, however, on the occasion of his first detention a cure has not been attained after 18 months the doctor must allow him to leave the institution uncured, unless he desires to remain voluntarily in the institution. If, however, his leave of absence has to be withdrawn, or if the magistrate order his reception into an institution again after he has once been definitely discharged leave need not be granted him again until after 3 years.

Article 11.

An especially difficult moment in the process of rehabilitating a drunkard is when he returns from the institution where he has of course always been under strict supervision, to the free life of ordinary society. An endeavour must be made to render the transition as gradual as possible ; greater freedom should be allowed him by degrees in the institution and he should not have full liberty at once. It is of the greatest importance that an inmate should not be discharged from the institution at once, but that a beginning should be made by allowing him leave of absence ; it

may be assumed that the latter will usually be the case.

The regulation of all details in connection with the leave of absence, a measure which it is intended shall play an important part in the curative treatment of drunkards, must be left to the medical officer of the institution. Persons on leave of absence continue to be borne on the strength of the institution, and the latter must be ready to receive them again within its walls at any time. The medical officer shall grant leave, whenever he considers that the person under treatment is in a condition to profit by it and that the conditions under which it would be spent would conduce to his cure. He may attach such conditions to the grant of leave, as he may consider desirable. He may grant leave for a definite or indefinite time, and if he has granted it for a definite period may always extend that period. It may be expected that if a person granted leave for a definite period as a precautionary measure conducts himself properly his leave will be extended. The doctor shall also withdraw the permission of absence if he considers this desirable in the interests of the person under his care. The doctor is entirely free in this respect, and has only to be guided by what appears to him as a medical man to be in the interests of the drunkard. It may be that failure to comply with the conditions of leave in a single particular will lead him to revoke the permission of an inmate to be absent, but it may also happen that failure to comply with any of the conditions may not under given circumstances have that result.

Direct police supervision of persons on leave of absence is to be avoided.

The Commission attaches considerable importance to the consultation with the relatives of the person under treatment, dealt with in Article 18 and the explanation thereof.

Article 17.

An institution for drunkards is, primarily, an institution in which it is attempted to cure drunkards; it therefore follows that they are to be discharged when the physician of the institution regards them as being entirely cured and does not consider an experimental period in ordinary society necessary; the latter will, however, as has been said above, only be the case exceptionally. As in Article 28 of the Lunacy Law, a written certificate of a cure is required.

It is not considered desirable to subject a person on leave of absence to a long period of restriction of his freedom any more than it was thought expedient to detain a drunkard for his whole life, or at any rate for several years in an institution. It is consequently proposed that a person who has spent a year uninterruptedly outside the institution shall be discharged. Besides, if he has passed a year outside the institution without giving cause for the withdrawal of his leave, it may certainly be assumed that he is cured.

Article 18.

These provisions have been borrowed from the first portion of the last paragraph of Article 28 of the Lunacy Law.

If this law is to work well, it must, however, be supported by private initiative, such particularly as that of societies for combatting drunkenness. Their work may be very useful in the return of the inmate of an institution to ordinary society.

The Commission were not, however, of opinion that they could not require that the burgomaster interested or the associations referred to must be consulted in virtue of this law.

Article 19.

The Commission started from the idea that the lack of institutions for reclaiming drunkards should be supplied by private initiative; there must, however, be an institution in which the Public Prosecutor's Department can place a person committed by a magistrate to an institution, if no place can be found for him in private establishments.

Article 20.

If the Government allows the reception into private inebriates' homes of persons committed by order of a magistrate to an institution, such establishments must satisfy the conditions which the Government considers it necessary to lay down with a view to the proper treatment of the inmates.

Article 21.

The object of this Article is to facilitate the task of private institutions. Government institutions are naturally more suitable for the treatment of such inmates as those referred to in this Article.

Article 22.

Underlying this Article again is the conception that an institute for inebriates is primarily an institute in which drunkards are maintained in their own interests with a view to their cure. From this point of view it is evident that they ought if possible to meet the expenses of their maintenance, as well as their journeys to and fro, from their own means. If a person is not in a position to do this, the charge should be borne by those legally bound to support him. If they are unable, the person under treatment is to be regarded in this respect as being in the same position as a pauper lunatic, and the commune to which he belongs should bear the cost. If it cannot be ascertained that any commune is so responsible, the costs are to be borne by the State.

It appears to the Commission to be equitable that the commune should also bear the cost, if the person in question or those who are legally bound to support him are not, though able to do so, disposed to pay the charges. The commune is in a better position than the reformatory institute to recover such sums.

The last sentence deals with the case in which the costs of maintenance of drunkards might prove too great a burden for a commune.

Article 23.

A system of discipline and order must exist in each establishment and to this all the inmates must submit. If they are voluntarily staying in the institution, it is easy to maintain discipline by discharging them, if warnings are found to be ineffectual. If such institutions were penal establishments, disciplinary punishments would naturally indicate the way to maintain order. A solution of the question presents peculiar difficulties, when one has to do not with penal institutions but with remedial establishments, even though the inmates reside in them under compulsion. Disciplinary punishments proper and dismissal are inapplicable; measures which may be taken against irresponsible lunatics cannot be adopted towards drunkards who have not lost their responsibility.

The Commission think it will be sufficient to allow an inmate as a disciplinary measure to be separated for not more than three weeks from his fellow inmates. If a person behaves badly in the company of others, segregation is a natural remedy.

If this is not sufficient to preserve order, a possibility which must be provided for in view of the presence of criminal elements, the Courts may authorise the offender to be placed in a special section of a Government institution for reclaiming drunkards, for a period of not more than three months; this would involve subjection to the stricter discipline there imposed.

It is, however, reasonable that the time spent in such special section should not be included in calculating the period on the expiry of which leave must be granted in accordance with Article 10.

Article 25.

Drunkards, who have not been committed to an institution by order of a magistrate, may also be maintained in a Government Institution for reclaiming drunkards if there is room for them. It is evident that to make a similar provision in regard to private institutions would be superfluous.

Article 26.

This Article expresses a principle. An institution for reclaiming drunkards cannot be at the same time a lunatic asylum. It must be an establishment in which an attempt is made to render drunkards able as far as possible to take a place again in society without restrictions. If lunatics were detained in the same establishment, this object would be greatly prejudiced.

Article 27.

The compulsory detention of drunkards in private institutions renders such institutions subject not only to the supervision provided by Article 20, but also to continuous inspection, so as to ascertain whether the treatment there is satisfactory and whether persons are being illegally deprived of their liberty in such establishments.

The inspectors belonging to the Government Service for the Supervision of Lunatics and Lunatic Asylums and the Officer of Justice appear to be the proper persons to inspect the establishments for drunkards.

Article 28.

The provision regarding the exemption from stamp duty and from registration formalities does not apply to

cases in which committal to an institution and the imposition of guardianship occur simultaneously, as in such cases according to the arrangement proposed in the draft bill, the legal provisions as to the imposition of guardianship will apply.

The last paragraph of this Article has been inserted in order to avoid a difficulty which has arisen in connection with the working of the Children's Laws.

AMENDMENT OF THE CRIMINAL CODE.

The fourth paragraph of Article 453 of the Criminal Code to be replaced by the following :—

On the third or subsequent repetition of the offence within one year after the last sentence for the second or subsequent repetition has become legally binding (cannot be appealed against), imprisonment for a period not exceeding six months shall be imposed.

In case the offence is repeated after such imprisonment,

the period of one year specified in the previous paragraph shall commence from the date of release from prison.

The following to be added to the second paragraph of Article 19 of the Criminal Code :—

In case of sentences inflicted in virtue of the fourth paragraph of Article 453, the imprisonment shall be undergone in separation.

EXPLANATION OF THE AMENDMENT TO THE CRIMINAL CODE.

As committal to a State labour colony will not in future be a punishment either direct or indirect, but merely a measure taken in the public interest, and will therefore disappear from the Criminal Code, it becomes necessary to alter Article 453.

If it were clear that the only persons to be sentenced in virtue of the fourth paragraph of Article 453 would be drunkards, it would be sufficient to read "institution for drunkards" instead of "Government labour colony." But this is not the case; the persons sentenced in consequence of the provisions referred to may in many cases be drunkards, but not always. If they are drunkards,

Article 6 of the Law as to Habitual Drunkards will enable them to be placed in an institution for drunkards; if, however, they are not drunkards the only penalty applicable is three weeks' imprisonment. This appears too light a punishment, as the offence of habitually appearing in a state of drunkenness in a public thoroughfare even at present involves committal to a State labour colony. It is therefore proposed to increase the maximum imprisonment from 3 weeks to 6 months, and it appears suitable that such imprisonment should be undergone in isolation.

APPENDIX C.

BALANCE SHEET OF THE WORKSHOPS AT MERXPLAS, FOR 1907.

Workshop.	Value of Output.	Profit.	Loss.	Remarks.
	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	
Brickyard - - -	3,245 4 6	—	63 1 2	The loss on the brickyard was due to the fact that the price fixed as receivable on the sale to the prisons was fixed below the cost of production.
Brushmakers - - -	372 1 7	82 13 10	—	
Concreters - - -	613 0 8	209 18 1	—	
Coachbuilders, Turners, Coopers - - -	792 13 6	63 13 11	—	
Bootmakers - - -	1,078 7 11	377 2 7	—	
Tilemakers (flooring squares) - - -	535 18 6	173 5 7	—	
Cabinetmakers - -	407 13 0	41 2 0	—	
Cow-hair Spinners - -	180 11 9	18 11 9	—	
Smithy - - - -	3,418 8 1	102 14 7	—	
Marble Workers and Stone Cutters - -	181 18 7	22 4 4	—	
Mat-makers - - -	3,965 5 10	363 8 6	—	After deducting the costs of administration, of maintenance, and purchase of the machinery, tools and buildings.
Tobacco - - - -	2,055 2 4	246 19 8	—	
Pearl Buttons - - -	462 1 8	413 9 6	—	
Tannery - - - -	4,907 3 1	111 16 9	—	
Weavers - - - -	6,972 18 4	813 9 5	—	
Tailors - - - -	4,308 14 9	73 3 9	—	
Joiners - - - -	2,225 18 9	455 14 8	—	
Guillon & Co. - -	336 11 8	214 14 7	—	
Gasworks - - - -	1,335 11 9	3 9 0	—	
Wooden Shoe makers -	492 18 9	—	—	
Autography and Binding	262 6 5	—	12 5 3	The loss on the autography was due to the fact, that the percentage of the establishment charges was estimated at less than the actual figure. See remarks above as to Pearl Buttons.
Stevens & Co. - -	116 14 6	231 11 6	—	
Sundry small industries	144 17 6	53 7 2	—	
TOTAL - - -	38,412 3 5	4,072 11 2	75 6 5	The value of the output includes that of the articles produced for the use of the colonies <i>without any profit</i> . The profit relates exclusively to the articles produced for the outside, and was received in cash. The work done for the colonies is brought into account at the cost of its production, without profit.
Net profit, £3,997 4s. 9d.				As between different years, the difference in percentage of profits earned is caused mainly by the greater or smaller quantity of articles produced for the use of the colonies and yielding no profit.
Percentage of profit earned on the work done for the outside, but reckoned on the total output including the work done for the colonies - - - - -				

10.40

APPENDIX D.

MUNICIPAL UNEMPLOYMENT INSURANCE AT STRASSBURG.

PART I.—REGULATIONS RELATING TO THE SCHEME OF INSURANCE AGAINST UNEMPLOYMENT ESTABLISHED BY THE MUNICIPALITY OF STRASSBURG.

1. The city of Strassburg grants, in the first instance as an experiment for the duration of one year, a sum not exceeding £250 for the purpose of encouraging insurance against unemployment.

2. This sum is to be used for the purpose of granting to every unemployed person, who belongs to an unemployed benefit fund of a Trade Society of workpeople, clerks, etc., a supplementary amount by way of addition to the amount paid to him by such fund.

3. The addition shall be made only for benefit given on the spot* in the case of involuntary unemployment. If the unemployment is due to strikes and lock-outs or their consequences, or to sickness, accident or invalidity, the Municipal supplement shall not be granted. The same holds good if unemployed persons, who originally had a right to assistance, are subsequently unemployed owing to strikes or lock-outs.

4. The supplement shall be paid only to such unemployed persons as, at the commencement of the period of unemployment, shall have resided in Strassburg for an uninterrupted period of at least one year.

5. The supplement amounts to 50 per cent. of the benefit received by the unemployed person from his Trade Society; the maximum amount of the Municipal supplement shall, however, be 1s. per day on which benefit is paid. As soon as it shall be seen that the granting of 50 per cent. would cause the Municipal contribution of £250 to be exceeded, a proportionate decrease in the supplement shall be made.

6. The supplement shall cease to be paid if the unemployed person is referred to suitable work in his trade. Single persons must also accept work away from Strassburg, except in special circumstances.

7. Those Trade Societies of workpeople, clerks, etc., which grant to their members unemployed benefit, have a claim to the Municipal supplement so far as they make a proposal to that effect at the Municipal Office and undertake to abide by the provisions of these Regulations.

8. All such Trade Societies must deliver at the Municipal Office a copy of their rules and of the regulations for the time being in force in relation to their unemployment benefit fund, and must administer this fund separately from the other objects of the Society. They must keep a current register in which shall be regularly entered :—

(a) Surname, Christian name, dwelling and occupation of all members who receive unemployment benefit.

(b) The amount of the benefit paid from the funds of the Society to the person concerned in accordance with its rules.

(c) The amount added by the Municipality per day and per head of the unemployed persons concerned.

(d) The date of the commencement of unemployment as also of the commencement of the right to receive benefit.

(e) The number of days of unemployment and the number of days in respect of which a claim to receive benefit exists.

9. The Trade Societies bind themselves to do all in their power to restrict unemployment as much as possible. In case of unemployment, therefore, the members must register themselves at the Municipal Labour Exchange, at the latest on the first working day after the commencement of the unemployment, and must report themselves there daily at the appointed time in order to verify the fact of their unemployment.

So far as concerns the period, which, according to the regulations, must elapse before a man's right to receive unemployment benefit shall commence to accrue, that period shall in all cases be deemed to begin as from the date of his first registration at the Municipal Labour Exchange.

The Municipal supplement will be paid in respect of those days only on which it is proved that the person has reported himself at the Labour Exchange.

10. The Trade Societies shall pay to their member the amount of the Municipal supplement in advance. In the first half of every month they shall present at the Municipal Office the account of the past month, with a copy of their list of unemployed members.

If the account is not presented at the proper time, the Municipal supplement shall be paid only in the following month.

11. The Trade Societies shall allow any persons authorised to that effect by the Municipal Office to inspect their account books for the purpose of verifying the due observance of the provisions of these Regulations.

12. Every act of deception on the part of a member committed with the object of receiving a supplement, to which he has no right, shall be followed by the exclusion of the person concerned from the grant of the supplement for a period of one year.

If it is proved, that an official of the Trade Society has acted in collusion with the impostor, the Society can be excluded from drawing the Municipal supplement for a year.

13. Disputes arising out of these Regulations are to be decided by a sub-committee of the Committee of Management of the Municipal Labour Exchange acting as a Court of Arbitration. This sub-committee shall consist of the president of the Committee of Management and of one employer and one workman selected from those elected by the Municipal Council to sit on that Committee.

The two last named members shall be elected by the Committee as a whole.

14. These Regulations shall come into force on January 1st, 1907. On December 1st, 1907, a detailed report shall be made to the Municipal Council showing the results of the working of this scheme.

PART II.

REPORT TO THE STRASSBURG MUNICIPAL COUNCIL ON THE WORKING OF THE MUNICIPAL SCHEME OF INSURANCE AGAINST UNEMPLOYMENT IN 1907.

By Mr. COUNCILLOR DOMINICUS.

In its sitting of December 27th, 1906 the Municipal Council, as is known, gave its sanction to a scheme of insurance against unemployment for the City of Strassburg, and, by way of experiment, in the first instance, voted a sum not exceeding £250 for one year to defray the cost of its execution. In Section 14 of the Regulations for the working of this scheme it was provided that it should come into force on January 1st, 1907, and that a detailed report, showing the results of the working of the scheme, should on December 1st, 1907, be made to the Municipal Council. It may at once be stated that the experience gained so far has already proved, that the credit granted was not only sufficient for the calendar year 1907, but will last up to March 31st, 1908, at least. Under these circumstances it was not necessary for the authorities charged

with the execution of this scheme to refer to the Municipal Council at so early a date as December the question, whether they should take measures for the eventual prolongation of this scheme, and for this reason the grounds, on which it might have been necessary to make a report as early as December 1st, 1907, disappeared. On the contrary, it appeared desirable to the Administration to make the report required in January, so that it would extend over a complete year. At the same time there arose from this the advantage to the Administration that the future credits for this purpose could be made at the time when the Municipal budget came up for discussion, and that such credits could accordingly be made to cover the financial year and not the calendar year. These reasons explain the apparent delay in the appearance of this report.

* i.e., benefit other than travelling or migration pay.

A.—THE INTRODUCTION OF THE INSURANCE.

Since there were only a few days between the date of the resolution of the Municipal Council (December 27th) and the day on which the Insurance Scheme came into force (January 1st), the representatives of all Trade Unions of workmen and associations of clerks, etc., which grant unemployed benefit, were invited to the Municipal Office. In the course of a conversation, which then took place, the various sections of the Regulations were discussed and explained, and the different forms to be used under the scheme were drawn up. After this, the organisations in question were requested, in accordance with section 7 of the Regulations, to present forthwith at the Municipal Office written applications for their admission into the Municipal scheme for insurance against unemployment. Already in this first discussion stress was laid by the representative of the Municipal Office on the point that the success of the attempt presupposed as an essential

condition the existence of *mutual confidence*, mutual trust and co-operation as between the Trade Unions and the officers of the Municipal Administration. This was agreed to on all sides, and on the part of the Trade Unions it was pointed out with emphasis how deeply conscious people must be, that on the success of this attempt depended not only the continued existence of this scheme at Strassburg, but, perhaps, also its gradual further extension to other parts of the German Empire. In short, both sides departed with the best intentions as to carrying it out.

Immediately a considerable number of applications were received. (See the accompanying Table I. showing the Trade Unions which made applications.) Trade Unions making these applications included all the Trade Unions of Strassburg, which at the present moment grant unemployed benefit, with the single exception of the Union of Transport Workers.

TABLE I.—Provisions relating to the Unemployment Benefit in the Trade Unions applying for admission into the Municipal Insurance.

(1)	Trade Union (2)	Conditions of Benefit.		Maximum Period of Benefit. (5)	Amount of Benefit. (6)	Date of applica- tion for Municipal Benefit. (7)	Remarks. (8)
		(a) Period of Membership or Number of Contributions. (3)	(b) Waiting Time. (4)				
					<i>Marks.</i>		
1	Stonemasons - -	78 weeks	6 days	56 days	1 per day	2/1/07	
2	Bookbinders - -	52 "	3 "	30-60 " *	0.75-1.75 per day * †	9/1/07	
3	Printers - - -	75 "	—	30-40 " (women)	0.75-1.25 " (women) *	1/1/07	
4	Printers' Assistants -	52 "	—	70-280 " *	1.25-1.50 " (including Sunday) *	2/1/07	
5	Woodworkers - -	52 "	6 "	10 weeks	4.20-6.30 per week * †	1/1/07	
6	Christian Woodworkers - -	52 "	6 "	36 days	6-10 per week *	5/1/07	
7	Lithographers (Sene- felder Union) - -	26 "	—	42 "	6-12 " " *	2/1/07	
8	Metal Workers - -	26 "	6 "	4-15 weeks *	9-12 " " *	3/1/07	
9	Smiths - - -	52 "	6 "	120 days	6-10 " " * §	2/1/07	
10	Tobacco Workers -	52 "	6 "	60 week days	6-12 " " *	15/1/07	
11	Upholsterers - -	26 "	3 "	21-42 days *	0.60-1.25 per day † (including Sunday)	1/1/07	
12	Carpenters - -	52 "	3 "	8 weeks	6-9 per week *	1/1/07	
13	Coopers - - -	1 year mem- bership ; 40 weekly con- tributions	6 "	Up to 36 days	4.50-7.50 per week †	1/1/07	
14	Gardeners - - -	52 weeks	6 "	42-80 days *	1.00-1.50 per day * †	1/1/07	
15	Glaziers - - -	12 months	6 "	28-84 "	1 per day †	15/1/07	
16	German National Shop Assistants - -	52 weeks	—	4-8 weeks *	6-10 per week *	27/1/07	
17	Christian Metal Workers - - -	2 years	15 "	3-12 months *	30-75 per month *	6/1/07	
18	Millers - - -	1 year	6 "	20 weeks	6-10 per week * §	1/1/07	
19	Boot and Shoemakers	1 "	4 week days	40 week days	0.50-1.50 per week day * †	2/1/07	
20	Christian Boot and Shoe and Leather Workers - -	52 weeks	—	40 days	0.50-1.30 " " †	5/1/07	
		1 year	6 days	30-50 " *	0.75 " "		

Note—1 Mark=1s.

The Unions numbered 1-12 received the Municipal Supplement.

* According to the period of membership or contributions paid.

† Sunday is not counted.

‡ Varies according to contribution class.

§ Women half.

As these Trade Unions were admitted, there followed immediately the application of unemployed members of these organisations, reporting themselves with a view to receiving the Municipal benefit. The unemployed persons made their reports to the Municipal Labour Exchange, at the same time producing their Trade Union membership books, and the unemployment card of the Union. The next step was, that these men were handed a "control-card"; they had then to present themselves daily at the Labour Exchange and produce this card. If the Exchange was unable to refer the person concerned to available work, the Exchange official stamped on his "control-card" the date on which the man had thus reported himself. The cashier of the Trade Union was thereupon given authority to pay to the unemployed person, in addition to the Trade Union benefit, the Municipal supplement for that day. In addition, the unemployed person, like every other person

seeking work, filled up his "case-paper card" at the Labour Exchange, and this remained in the possession of the Exchange, and was stamped by the official at the same time as the "control-card." By means of this double entry book-keeping any possible deception by falsification of the stamp on the "control-card" was rendered impossible.

In the first half of every month the Trade Unions handed in their monthly account in duplicate; one copy went, in accordance with directions, to the Finance Department of the Municipality; the other was kept with the other records of the Administration. In these monthly reports the Trade Unions had to include also those members, who received unemployment benefit from the Union only and not also from the Municipality (*e.g.* on account of non residence in Strassburg), so as to give a picture as complete as possible of the whole of the payments made by the Unions.

B.—RESULTS.

1.—Statistical.

Of the twenty Trade Unions applying and admitted, only twelve have in the course of the year, participated in the benefits provided by the Municipal Insurance Scheme. The non-participation of the remaining eight was due partly to their small membership and partly to the fact, that the few members of these Trade Unions, who became unemployed, did not fulfil the conditions laid down by the Municipal Regulations (especially that of one year's residence), and in the last place (this was especially the case with the great German National

Shop Assistants' Union) to the flourishing condition of trade which prevailed.

Table II., which follows, shows the numbers of the members of Trade Unions, who received the Municipal supplement, and their distribution, month by month. According to these figures, in all 264 unemployed persons were assisted during the twelve months. Excluding, however, those, who received this supplement in more than one month, the number of different unemployed individuals, who were assisted in this manner, was no more than 153.

TABLE II.—Distribution of the Unemployed Persons over the various Seasons.

Trade Union.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.	Total.
1. Stonemasons - -	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	2	2	2	—	7
2. Bookbinders - -	—	—	—	2	—	—	1	2	—	—	—	2	7
3. Printers - - -	8	5	3	1	5	4	5	8	7	8	4	4	62
4. Printers' Assistants -	—	—	—	—	1	—	—	2	2	1	2	2	10
5. Woodworkers - -	13	10	7	2	1	2	1	—	2	3	10	16	67
6. Christian Woodworkers	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	1
7. Metal Workers - -	9	11	5	2	5	2	4	1	6	5	8	5	63
8. Smiths - - -	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1
9. Lithographers (Sene- felder Union) - -	—	1	3	1	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	6
10. Tobacco Workers -	—	—	1	2	1	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	5
11. Upholsterers - -	3	4	1	—	1	1	—	1	—	—	—	—	11
12. Carpenters - - -	6	2	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	7	4	4	24
Total - - -	39	33	22	10	14	9	13	15	19	26	30	34	264

As will be seen, by far the greatest (absolute) number of persons, who claimed Municipal benefit, were the printers, wood-workers and metal-workers. After them, came the carpenters, upholsterers' and printers' assistants.

The distribution of the persons assisted over the separate months is interesting. The claims on the

Municipal insurance scheme were greatest in January (39), and smallest in June (9). Only the printers and metal-workers had unemployed members participating in the Municipal insurance in every month of the year. In the case of the wood-workers, only August was missing, while in that of the carpenters, the only months, in which unemployed members claimed the Municipal benefit, were the six winter months (October—March).

TABLE III.—Number of Days, in respect of which the Municipal Benefit was paid.

In	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Trade Union.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.	Total.
1. Stonemasons - -	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	5	26	35	22	—	88
2. Bookbinders - -	—	—	—	11	—	—	13	24	—	—	—	29	77
3. Printers - - -	59	79	41	8	52	64	74	164	118	56	30	50	795
4. Printers' Assistants -	—	—	—	—	3	—	—	13	6	24	45	24	115
5. Woodworkers - -	127	97	21	7	6	15	26	—	6	13	63	219	600
6. Christian Woodworkers	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	18	18
7. Metal Workers - -	98	109	59	18	26	36	8	6	23	19	35	61	498
8. Smiths - - -	—	—	12	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	12
9. Lithographers (Senefelder Union) -	—	6	28	18	—	—	8	—	—	—	—	—	60
10. Tobacco Workers -	—	—	3	31	22	—	22	—	—	—	—	—	78
11. Upholsterers - -	64	65	4	—	5	3	—	2	—	—	—	—	143
12. Carpenters - - -	13	22	8	—	—	—	—	—	—	43	24	24	124
TOTAL - - -	361	378	176	93	114	118	151	214	179	199	219	425	2,618

This picture is completed by Table III., which gives the number of days, in respect of which benefit was paid under the Municipal Unemployed Insurance Scheme, the different Trade Unions and months being distinguished. In all, benefit was paid in respect of 2,618 days. Of the various Unions that of the printers was represented most largely (795 days, or over one-quarter of the whole). At the first glance, this number appears astonishing if we compare the total number of organised printers (676) with that of the organised metal workers (1,105) and with that of the days (498) in respect of which these metal workers received benefit. If, however, from these figures it should be inferred that a greater amount of unemployment existed among the printers than among the metal workers, such a conclusion would be quite false, because printers necessarily show a greater number of days, on which benefit is paid, than any other Trade Union for the following reasons:—

(1) Because they can claim unemployed pay at once, not having any waiting-time (before benefit can be drawn); and

(2) Because they pay benefit in respect, not alone of week days, but also of Sundays and holidays.

The Municipal supplement in the case of printers is accordingly also paid immediately after the commencement of the unemployment and also in respect of Sundays and holidays. In the last place, it must not be forgotten that nearly 100 per cent. of the printers are organised, so that every case of unemployment among them (with the exception of newly arrived persons) also comes at once within the scope of the Municipal subsidy,

while in the case of the metal workers a considerable proportion are unorganised, and precisely among these unorganised metal workers individual cases, in which the risk of unemployment is great, occur. In this Table it is also astonishing to see the considerably larger number of days, on which Municipal benefit was granted (600) in the case of the woodworkers, with only 672 members, as compared with the 498 days for the 1,105 metal workers. Since in both these Unions the waiting time and the period of membership qualifying for benefit is the same, and the period during which benefit is allowed in the case of the metal workers (120 days) is much longer than that in the case of the wood workers (36 days) the figures prove the existence of a greater amount of actual unemployment in this case than in that of the metal workers. This unemployment was chiefly among the parquette layers at the beginning of the year, and among the persons engaged on lock, window, etc., work towards the end of the year.

If we glance at the distribution of the days, in respect of which Municipal benefit was paid, over the separate months of the year, we see that, as opposed to the preceding Table, not January (with 361 days) but December (with 425 days) shows the *maximum*. The duration of the unemployment of the individuals, to whom Municipal benefit was granted, is also longer in December than in January, which points to the existence of industrial depression. The smallest number of days in respect of which benefit was paid, is not shown by June (as in the case of the number receiving benefit), but by April.

TABLE IV.—Ages of the Unemployed Persons receiving Benefit from the Municipality.

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Trade Union.	Under 20 years.	20-30 years.	31-40 years.	41-50 years.	51-60 years.	Over 60 years.	Total.
1. Stonemasons - - -	—	1	1	—	—	—	2
2. Bookbinders - - -	—	3	1	—	—	1	5
3. Printers - - -	1	22	6	1	—	1	31
4. Printers' Assistants -	2	3	2	—	—	—	7
5. Wood-workers - - -	1	13	13	6	6	—	39
6. Christian Wood-workers -	—	1	—	—	—	—	1
7. Lithographers (Senefelder Un'n)	1	3	—	1	—	—	5
8. Metal-workers - - -	4	22	8	3	1	1	39
9. Smiths - - -	—	—	1	—	—	—	1
10. Tobacco-workers - - -	—	1	1	—	—	—	2
11. Upholsterers - - -	—	3	2	—	—	—	5
12. Carpenters - - -	—	1	1	2	8	4	16
TOTAL - - -	9	73	36	13	15	7	153

Table IV. shows the distribution of the insured persons receiving benefit from the Municipality according to age. The numbers are as yet so small that they scarcely admit of general conclusions being arrived at. What is indeed apparent is the fact that, while the number of old people, who became unemployed, was quite considerable, that of the unemployed, who were in the prime of life, was also very large. This is, in part, due to

special circumstances, which for the most part, may be considered accidental.

The duration of the benefit paid is seen from Table V., but only in so far as it is co-extensive with the period, during which the Municipal benefit continued payable. Exact particulars of the days, in respect of which benefit was granted by the Trade Unions, could not be ascertained this year owing to the lack of special book-keeping in relation to this point.

TABLE V.—The Duration of the Benefit paid to the Individual Insured Persons by the Municipality.

Trade Union.	1-5 days.	5-10 days.	11-20 days.	21-30 days.	13-50 days.	51-100 days.	Over 100 days.	Total.
1. Stonemasons - - - - -	—	—	—	—	1	1	—	—
2. Bookbinders - - - - -	1	3	—	—	1	—	—	—
3. Printers - - - - -	6	5	6	5	4	4	1	—
4. Printers' Assistants - - - - -	2	2	1	—	2	—	—	—
5. Wood-workers - - - - -	8	10	9	9	3	—	—	—
6. Christian Wood-workers - - - - -	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	—
7. Lithographers (Senefelder Union) -	1	2	1	1	—	—	—	—
8. Metal-workers - - - - -	14	12	4	5	3	1	—	—
9. Smiths - - - - -	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	—
10. Tobacco-workers - - - - -	—	—	—	2	—	—	—	—
11. Upholsterers - - - - -	—	1	1	—	3	—	—	—
12. Carpenters - - - - -	9	2	4	1	—	—	—	—
TOTAL - - - - -	41	37	28	23	17	6	1	153

N.B.—Repeated benefits paid to the same person are counted together.

The duration of unemployment shown in these figures is accordingly not the actual duration. The *maximum* period, in respect of which benefit was received, was in the case of a printer (103 days, this period being made up of several distinct periods of unemployment occurring in the course of the year). Cases of extended

unemployment of this nature are of course accompanied by special circumstances (diminished capacity for work through old age, etc.) The average duration of the period of unemployment, for which benefit was paid, was 16·5 days ; in the case of the printers it was 27·1 days (owing to their extensive right to benefit).

TABLE VI.—Amount of Benefit paid.

	Trade Union.	Number of persons receiving Municipal Benefit.	Of these persons		Number of days in respect of which Benefit was paid by the Municipality.	Amount of Benefit paid by		Amount of the Municipal Benefit per person and day.
			were Females.	were assisted more than once.		Trade Union.	Municipality.	
						Marks.	Marks.	Marks.
1	Stonemasons - - - - -	2	—	1	88	293·75	55·11	0·63
2	Bookbinders - - - - -	5	—	1	77	272·75	59·23	0·71
3	Printers - - - - -	31	—	5*	795	3,144·75	779·87	0·98
4	Printers' Assistants - - - - -	7	—	—	115	203·85	48·85	0·42
5	Woodworkers - - - - -	39	—	5*	600	1,215·34	380·43	0·63
6	Christian Woodworkers - - - - -	1	1	—	18	78·00	4·50	0·25
7	Lithographers (Senefelder Union) -	5	—	—	60	386·20	54·50	0·91
8	Metal Workers - - - - -	39	—	6*	498	1,255·30	308·29	0·62
9	Smiths - - - - -	1	—	—	12	43·00	6·00	0·50
10	Tobacco Workers - - - - -	2	2	—	78	76·60	23·40	0·30
11	Upholsterers - - - - -	5	—	1	143	248·25	90·09	0·63
12	Carpenters - - - - -	16	—	2	134	440·75	79·08	0·59
13	Millers - - - - -	—	—	—	—	20·00	—	—
14	Boot and Shoe Makers - - - - -	—	—	—	—	48·10	—	—
	TOTAL - - - - -	153	3	21	2,618	7,726·64	1,889·35	0·72

Note.—1 Mark=1s.

* The Woodworkers, Metal Workers and Printers had each 1 or 2 persons, who received Municipal Benefit 3 times and the Printers one person who received it 5 times.

The most important of all the figures here presented are, of course, those contained in the Table which shows the number of persons receiving benefit, and the amount of such benefit (Table VI.). Unfortunately, the number of persons, to whom benefit was paid by the Trade Unions themselves, could not be included. These ought, of course, to be stated in the monthly Reports to the Municipality; but we have reasons for believing that these particulars are not complete, since a number of Trade Unions have not returned the sum paid by the Trade Union itself in those months in which their members drew no Municipal benefit. For this reason the particulars of the eight Trades Unions, which, although affiliated under the Municipal Insurance Scheme, drew no benefit from the Municipality in 1907, have, with the exception of the millers and boot and shoe makers, who furnished us with these particulars in time, not been included. Next year it will be possible to show exact figures also in relation to the payments made by the Trade Unions themselves.

One hundred and fifty-three separate persons received benefit from the Municipality, of whom twenty-one received it on several distinct occasions. Of the 153, three only were women.

The total amount of the Municipal benefit paid in 1907 was £94 10s. Corresponding to this, the same twelve Trade Unions paid out of their funds (for benefit on the spot, i.e., not including travelling benefit) £383. Thus the £250 fixed for the Municipal Supplement has proved more than sufficient. In the Resolution the amount was calculated on the basis that from October 1st, 1905, to October 1st, 1906, eighteen Social Democratic Trade Unions had paid out, for unemployment benefit, a total of £244. After adding the Christian Trade Unions and the Shop Assistants, and making a careful review of the conditions of trade prevailing, it had been taken that £250 would certainly cover a Municipal supplement at the rate of 50 per cent. That not one-half of this figure was reached, was due to the combination of a number of circumstances. In the first place, it must be recognised that, although the Municipal Administration, as has been mentioned, immediately called the attention of all the

Trade Unions concerned to this new institution, by verbal communication, there was at first a not inconsiderable number of cases of unemployment, which through either ignorance or neglect were not reported as claimants of the Municipal benefit. This will easily be understood by any who is acquainted with the history of our Workmen's Insurance Laws. As the individual cases, in which an unemployed person drew the Municipal benefit, become more and more known, this source of defect will diminish. On this ground, we shall have increasing numbers to show in the near future.

At the first glance the difference between the Trade Union benefit and the Municipal benefit appears surprisingly large. One would be inclined to assume that the amount of the Trade Union benefit would not exceed twice that of the Municipal. Instead, it amounted not to £189 or twice, but to £383, or four times that amount. This is explained by the fact that the Trade Unions paid their benefit in respect of many days, in respect of which the Municipality paid none, owing to neglect to report according to the regulations. A preponderating part of the difference is explained by the provision of one year's residence in the town. The Trade Unions naturally do not trouble themselves about this; indeed, they have among their members receiving benefit many persons who reside not in Strassburg, but in the neighbourhood, provided that their residences fall within the district of the local Trade Union office.

But the most important reason for the comparative smallness of the Municipal benefit is the favourable state of trade prevailing in this year. Although private building activity was very dull, and the total number of workpeople in the town remained constant throughout the year according to the statistics of the Sick Funds, yet there was, on the other hand, no great congestion or influx of non-Strassburg workpeople to record. Especially in commerce was employment good, as can be seen from the circumstance that in so large a Union, comparatively speaking, as that of the German National Shop Assistants, not a single unemployed person reported himself for the Municipal benefit.

The largest part of the Municipal benefit fell to the printers, whose system of unemployment benefit is, as is known, the most highly developed of all.

II.—RESULTS OBTAINED IN RELATION TO THE EXECUTION OF THE SEVERAL PROVISIONS OF THE INSURANCE REGULATIONS.

The results just stated show the *numerical* results of the first year of the Strassburg scheme. Before reviewing its general operation, it is first necessary to consider also the circumstances actually experienced in carrying out the several provisions made by the Insurance Regulations. As is known, three principal doubts have been entertained by the experts in regard to the possibility of carrying out insurance against unemployment, both in general and in the special form of the Ghent system* :—

- (1) The difficulty of verifying the causes of unemployment.
- (2) The difficulty of verifying the unemployment actually existing.
- (3) The difficulty of terminating the unemployment by finding for the unemployed "suitable" work.

All these difficulties can certainly be overcome in practice in a very simple manner; that is to say, by arranging that the Municipality shall simply desist from exercising any really effective measures of verification on its own part and leave verification entirely to the Trade Unions. The whole insurance against unemployment would then consist, as under the Ghent

system, of a Municipal subvention to the Trade Unions without any testing, except the matter-of-course and purely formal testing of accounts.

In such circumstances it is, as the person, who has the best knowledge of the Workmen's Insurance Institutions, Dr. Leo, of the German Imperial Statistical Office, rightly points out in an article in the *Zeitschrift für die gesamte Versicherungs-Wissenschaft* [the *Journal of Scientific Insurance*] of October, 1907, that the Ghent system "has shown no practical difficulties."

Such a renunciation by the Municipal Administration of all co-operation on its part did not, however, correspond to the spirit of the Strassburg Regulations. These Regulations, on the contrary, provide for effective testing and co-operation to be carried out by the Municipal officials, and therefore, from the beginning, it was out of the question that the Municipality could possibly confine itself to honouring the monthly accounts sent in by the Trade Unions. On this account, the experiences communicated in the following statement should claim all the more importance, in that the Municipal Administration sought from the first, not to leave the provisions of these Regulations to exist merely on the paper on which they were written, but to apply them strictly in practice.

(1.)—DIFFICULTIES OF VERIFYING THE CAUSE OF UNEMPLOYMENT.

Individuals reporting themselves for Municipal assistance were questioned at the Labour Exchange as to the cause of their unemployment. The particulars given were, so far as possible, checked by comparing them with those furnished by the Trade Union officials. In cases of doubt inquiry was made from the last employer. Through the unemployed persons daily reporting themselves at the Labour Exchange any incorrect particulars as to the cause of unemployment

came to light, owing to contradictions in the course of conversation. In this way both the officials engaged in this work at the Labour Exchange, both of whom (it should be noted) were old trade unionists, were convinced that they, in practically all cases, found out the real cause of unemployment.

Section 3 of the Insurance Regulations provides, that the supplement shall be made only in the case of "involuntary unemployment."

* See *Report on Unemployed in Foreign Countries* (Cd. 2304 of 1904, pp. 186-194. .

In case of doubt, the term "voluntary" was taken to mean every loss of employment through the unemployed person giving notice to terminate his employment himself. Only in those cases, in which the unemployed person was able to assign a really good reason was the benefit given. As a good reason, for instance, was recognised at once the fact that the employer had required the workman concerned to contravene the provisions of an existing labour tariff agreement. In the same way isolated cases occurred, in which the unemployed persons complained of want of straightforwardness on the part of the employer or foremen. In these cases it must be recognised that it is possible for differences of opinion to arise. And, as a matter of fact, there were two or three cases, in which the representatives of the Trade Unions differed from the Municipal officials. In these cases the persons concerned received benefit from the Trade Union, but not from the Municipality. These cases, however, were very few indeed. In general, it can be confirmed, that in the town of Strassburg a well established Municipal Labour Exchange has so many connections with employers and workpeople, that it can certainly discover big frauds as to the cause of unemployment, if not immediately, in most cases, soon.

The provision, that no Municipal benefit should be paid, if the unemployment is "due to strikes or their consequences" had an interesting application, for, in

consequence of a long strike and lock-out of builders' labourers, a carpenter became unemployed and reported himself for Municipal assistance. In agreement with the Trade Union the Municipal supplement was refused; the person concerned received much more from his Trade Union strike pay.

The further provision, that sickness, as a reason for unemployment, precludes the granting of the Municipal supplement, necessitated a limited outlay in those cases, in which the sickness had been the cause of the original dismissal of the sick person, but in which the persons concerned, having recovered, did not find work immediately. In these cases the Municipal supplement was paid, since the unemployment was only the *indirect* consequence of sickness, and that provision was substantially only intended to affect cases, in which a claim to sick pay existed.

The Accident Insurance system touched a case, in which an unemployed person, by drawing the unemployed benefit of the Trade Union, together with the Municipal supplement, and an accident allowance income of 20s. monthly, drew a total monthly income only a little inferior to his former earnings. Here lay the fear of fraud, and, therefore, in this case also, the Labour Exchange, in conjunction with the Trade Union, insisted immediately, with special energy, on the acceptance of work found for this man.

2.—THE DIFFICULTIES OF VERIFYING THE EXISTING UNEMPLOYMENT.

For the purpose of verifying the fact that an alleged unemployed person is really unemployed the Insurance Regulations prescribe, as is known (*see* Section 9), in the case of unemployment, that the Trade Union members shall register themselves at the Municipal Labour Exchange at the latest on the first working day after the commencement of the unemployment, and shall report themselves there daily at the appointed time for verification.

This provision was strictly adhered to. This is an absolute necessity in the case of the numerous Trade Unions, which have no chief official, who attends to receive the reports of the unemployed persons during working hours. Where on the contrary this Trade Union reporting has to be made to the honorary Trade Union official, who himself works the whole day, and, indeed, nearly always away from his residence, the reporting takes place, as a rule, out of working hours, and not daily, and, not rarely, only once a week. So lax a control naturally makes fraud possible. Here, again, the daily control by the Labour Exchange is, of course, indispensable. But even in the case of the big Trade Unions, which prescribe daily reporting during working hours to their chief officials appointed by their chief office, daily reporting at the Labour Exchange was still required, and was maintained without any objections, the Trade Unions, indeed, giving vigorous assistance. The good relationship, in which the officials of the Labour Office stood to the Trade Unions, led to the latter not rarely expressly pointing out to the Municipal official cases about which they felt suspicious. In these cases the Labour Exchange was not content with the man's reporting once a day, but sometimes required him to report as many as three times, a course of action which met with full agreement with the representatives of the Trade Unions.

Of course, the unemployed persons were not ordered to report themselves at the same hour daily at the Labour Exchange, but at a time frequently varied, and not necessarily in the midst of the usual working hours, in order to prevent so far as possible, the persons concerned from being at work at the same time.

In spite of this thorough verification it is, of course, impossible to prevent or discover all purely occasional

work of the reported unemployed persons. For instance, it was only accidentally discovered that a joiner, who had become unemployed at one time, helped in removing goods, and at other times helped at the market, being taken on by the hour. But what person acquainted with our Workmen's Insurance Laws can not easily recall to mind the many cases of contravention of the provisions of the Sick Funds (*e.g.* public-house prohibition, home-work)?

And indeed no reasonable persons would wish to abolish German Sickness Insurance on account of such occurrences. It is not these isolated cases of occasional secondary employment which are serious; the matter is only unfavourable for the Unemployed Insurance, if a not inconsiderable portion of the unemployed persons succeed, in spite of the verification, in pursuing a trade *permanently*. In this connection, however, only one case was discovered, which naturally resulted in the complete exclusion of the person concerned from the Municipal supplement. In addition, the Trade Union concerned caused the money already paid as benefit to be returned, and itself excluded the person concerned. For the rest, we maintain that by means of the joint verification exercised by the Trade Unions and the Labour Exchange it is hardly possible for an unemployed person to work for several days and at the same time draw the unemployed benefit.

If, as shown above, the verification by the Labour Exchange was so rigorous in general, and if suspected persons were treated without much mercy, on the other hand the circumstances of individual cases were taken into indulgent consideration. For instance, leave was often granted to travel away from the town with the object of seeking an opportunity for getting work. Once it happened that, in the case of an unemployed upholsterer, the daily reporting was allowed to be dispensed with, owing to his participation in a journeyman's course of instruction. In this case, owing to the season of the year, a long period of unemployment was probable. Of course, this leave of absence was granted only on the condition, that the person concerned would, in case he could be found work, immediately take it up, failing which the Municipal contribution would no longer be paid.

3. DIFFICULTIES OF TERMINATING THE UNEMPLOYMENT BY FINDING SUITABLE WORK.

Section 6 of the Insurance Regulations provides:—

"The supplement shall cease to be paid if the unemployed person is referred to suitable work in his trade. Single persons must also accept work away from Strassburg except in special circumstances."

For the carrying out of this provision the manage-

ment of the Labour Exchange, of course, exercises an all-important right of decision. Sometimes it happens that this Exchange has at its disposal at the same time a sufficient demand on the part of the employers for just these very skilled workpeople, and then the question arises as to what the Exchange Office looks upon as "suitable work."

In the first connection we can establish the fact that out of the 299 cases in which benefit was paid, 124 were terminated by the men being sent to situations by the Municipal Labour Exchange (see Table VII). Although, naturally, the majority of the unemployed persons found work again in other ways, in particular by personal search, it is certainly a gratifying result for

the Municipal Labour Exchange that the termination of 41 per cent. of the cases of benefit was due to its efforts. However, later on in the report there will be an opportunity for entering with greater detail into the importance of the co-operation of the Labour Exchange in relation to the working of the Municipal Unemployment Insurance Scheme.

TABLE VII.—Termination of the granting of the Municipal supplement.

Trade Union.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
	Furnishing of Work		Claim to benefit exhausted.	Exclusion.	
	(a) Through the Labour Exchange.	(b) Through other means.		(a) Permanent	(b) Temporary.
1. Stonemasons - - - - -	1	5	1	—	—
2. Bookbinders - - - - -	3	—	—	—	—
3. Printers - - - - -	9	35	1	—	4
4. Printers' Assistants - - - - -	2	3	—	1	—
5. Woodworkers - - - - -	24	50	3	—	—
6. Christian Woodworkers - - - - -	—	—	—	—	—
7. Lithographers (Senefelder Union) - - - - -	1	4	—	—	—
8. Metal Workers - - - - -	43	46	—	—	5
9. Smiths - - - - -	2	4	—	—	—
10. Tobacco Workers - - - - -	—	2	2	—	—
11. Upholsterers - - - - -	2	3	—	—	1
12. Carpenters - - - - -	36	14	—	—	2
13. Coopers - - - - -	1*	1*	—	—	—
TOTAL - - - - -	124	167	7	1	12

With regard to the definition of the term "suitable work," the following principles were followed in practice. The next words in the Insurance Regulation are that this work should be found "in the person's trade." This means that skilled workpeople, who belong to an unemployed insurance fund, are, as a matter of principle, not required to take up labourers' work. In consequence of this principle a carpenter, having a right to benefit, who had voluntarily accepted labourers' work, was granted unemployment benefit when he voluntarily gave this work up. Also it was held that, if at any place a labour tariff agreement existed, no unemployed insured person was required to accept work not paid in accordance with the tariff. It would, in fact, be absurd, if in a place, like Strassburg, where most tariffs are agreed upon with the co-operation of the Municipal Office, a Municipal department like the Labour Exchange were, by following a different practice in sending unemployed persons to work, to contribute to the infringement of the tariff. On the contrary, both workpeople and employers should be interested in the practice of the Labour Exchange sketched above. The question of sending men to work can become doubtful in the case of such unemployed persons as really exercise no skilled trade. Such cases occurred in regard to printers' assistants, parquette planers, and women occupied in the manufacture of tobacco. In these cases we are dealing, on the whole, with persons who have not been through a definite apprenticeship. It would, of course, be unreasonable to require such persons, *immediately after becoming unemployed*, so far as their previous occupation is concerned, to pass over at once to other unknown work. They could rightly object to such a demand, seeing that they insured themselves in their own Trade Unions just in order to meet a contingency of this very nature. But the case is different if, owing to the conditions of the labour market in their own trade, it appears that for a long time it will be impossible to find them work in their own particular branch. In such a case it is in the insured person's own interest to take up other work at the customary local wage, rather than draw the small unemployed benefit.

For this reason in such cases the Labour Exchange, in conjunction with the Trade Unions, aimed at the taking up of other work. Of course, such cases were proceeded with with minute consideration of the

circumstances of the individual case (e.g. as regards age), and no dissensions arose on this account.

On the contrary, the sending of single men to work brought about some differences of opinion between the Trade Unions and the Labour Exchange. It was held by the Labour Exchange that single persons in general must accept work away from the town, unless there were special circumstances opposed to such a course. Some Trade Unions objected that, away from the town at times, in the smaller industrial districts, wages were often paid which were considerably lower than the tariff rates of Strassburg. The Labour Exchange in such cases represented that, naturally, the same wages could not be demanded in small places as in Strassburg; but that on the other hand the unemployed are not required to work under worse conditions than those customary in the country districts. In order to avoid disputes in the matter, an especially careful statement of the wages and other working conditions was previously demanded of the outside employers, and on the grounds of this material it was decided whether this situation should be accepted by the unemployed person. In this way, and by the mutual confidence existing between the Labour Exchange and the Trade Unions, the few cases of doubt were successfully arranged.

How thoroughly, in general, the Labour Exchange considered the individual case in sending men to work, may be seen from the two following examples. An unemployed person refused to accept a position as workman in a business on the ground that formerly, in the same business, he had been bricklayers' and masons' foreman. After establishing the correctness of this statement, the acceptance of this situation in reference to this man was not pressed. Another man refused many places complaining of bad health. As the person concerned was suspected by both the Labour Exchange and his own Trade Union as being a fraud, he was requested to submit to an examination by the medical officer of the Municipality, and the latter's decision resulted in his being sent to work.

From these statements the conclusion will be drawn, that the three chief theoretical doubts as to unemployed insurance, viz., the difficulty of verifying the cause, the duration, and the termination of the unemployment, have not proved themselves well-founded in the first year of the operation of the Strassburg scheme.

* In both cases the person concerned found work within the waiting time.

4.—THE REQUIREMENT OF RESIDENCE IN STRASSBURG.

As regards the remaining experiences with respect to the different provisions of the Insurance Regulations, those regarding the condition of residence require a special word. According to Section 4 of the Insurance Regulations, the Municipal supplement shall only be paid to those unemployed persons who, at the beginning of the period of unemployment, shall have resided in Strassburg for an uninterrupted period of at least one year. In accordance with this rule, every monthly account handed in by a Trade Union was first examined by inquiry at the Inhabitants' Registry Office, to see whether the person receiving benefit concerned had resided here for at least a year.

It was necessary to make an exception in the case of soldiers, who returned to Strassburg after service with the colours. In such cases in reckoning their one year's residence the service time was simply considered not to have existed.

It was, however, a more difficult case if the present residence had been interrupted by temporary work outside Strassburg. Here it was held, that such absence was not counted if the Strassburg worker concerned had worked outside in the service of a Strassburg firm (*e.g.*, engineers employed as erectors).

If on the contrary the outside work was executed for an employer not in Strassburg, a distinction was made between married and single persons.

For the first, an absence was not counted if, and so long as, the family lived here, and was supported by the person concerned; *i.e.*, no time was taken off. In the case of single persons an absence was not counted if the person was a native of Strassburg or had resided here for over two years. Of course, absence for a day or two was not counted at all. In giving this interpretation, which was agreed to by the Trade Unions, to the rules, the administration believed it acted in the spirit of the Insurance Regulations. It cannot be denied, that every such provision requiring long residence as a condition for Municipal payment is two-edged. In particular, the administration of the Labour Exchange believes that it has come across individual cases, in which, in the summer, persons, especially single persons, having the choice of work here or work outside, have refused the latter, fearing that they would lose their right later on to Municipal unemployment benefit. The same period of residence is required as a condition for admission to winter distress work. In individual cases this creates difficulty in filling outside situations.

But, in spite of all, this one-year period must be retained so as to avoid the, in any case, considerable claims on the Municipal benefit being made by persons only here temporarily. The inconvenience can be done away with only when we have general obligatory insurance against unemployment for the Empire.

5.—FORMAL PROVISIONS OF THE INSURANCE REGULATIONS.

Finally, as regards the experiences gone through in the case of the remaining more formal provisions of the Insurance Regulations, it can be first of all stated, that the Trade Unions fulfilled the demands made upon them regarding the keeping of lists and accounts in a thorough-going manner. Only quite rarely did it happen, that a Trade Union overstepped the prescribed period of time for delivering its monthly account (*i.e.*, up to the 15th of the following month). Throughout the formal communication with the Trade Unions not the least trouble was experienced.

For the Court of Arbitration Committee, provided for in Section 13 of the Regulations, the Committee of management of the Labour Exchange elected, as representative of the employers, Herr Voltz, plasterer, and, as representative of the workpeople, Egert, painter.

Throughout the year it was not once found necessary to call upon this Committee to act. This is indeed the best proof of the confidence, which the Trade Unions had in the decisions of the Labour Exchange.

Speaking generally, indeed, we can close this consideration of the experiences of the practical execution of the Insurance Regulations with the statement, that the provisions of these Regulations, in the present conditions and with the mutual efforts to carry out their loyal application, have proved, that they were in all respects capable of being carried out, and have given rise to no serious difficulties. This was also the unanimous opinion of the representatives of the Trade Unions concerned, with whom the experiences of the year were talked over at a joint meeting on January 16th, 1908.

6.—EFFECTS OF THE INSURANCE INSTITUTION.

If the Strassburg Insurance Regulations have, according to our experience, proved their capability of being carried out, the question arises as to what general effects the whole scheme has produced in the first year. While the statement of the practical experiences was a task capable of being fulfilled with ease and with comparative certainty of being accurate, on the other hand, that of the reviewing the effects produced naturally demands prudence and reserve.

The object of the scheme was the mitigation of the consequences of unemployment for skilled workmen domiciled in Strassburg.

In order to arrive at a decision as to the extent, to which this object was achieved in the first year, it is necessary to compare the circle of workpeople protected by the insurance scheme with that of all those requiring protection. The data for such an exact comparison would be the existence of statistics of occupations of the existing skilled workpeople. Unfortunately, the results of the Census of Occupations taken in the summer of 1907 are not yet to hand for Strassburg, so that such a comparison will only be possible later on. In the meantime we must fall back on estimates obtained by considering the figures of the Sick Funds statistics. From Table VIII., which follows, we see first of all, that the Trade Unions included in the Municipal Insurance Scheme had a membership of about 4,000. Compared with this, there were on January 1st, 1907, about 24,000 males insured in the Local

Sick Funds and the Factory Sick Funds. From these we must subtract about 2,000 to 3,000 day labourers, navvies and other unskilled workmen, for whom (as is well known) the insurance is not intended, and, in addition, about 1,600 workmen in Municipal and State undertakings, for whom the risk of unemployment is a small one; and, finally, about 400 persons (of all sorts and conditions) voluntarily insured. There then remain about 20,000 workpeople occupied here. From these must be subtracted the considerable number of outside workers, who do not come into consideration in the Strassburg insurance scheme; an estimate of their number is scarcely possible. According to this, at present about 25 per cent. of the workpeople in question are members of Trade Unions, who in case of unemployment have a claim on the Municipal benefit.

The percentage, as is known, differs extraordinarily in the different occupations, but this is unfortunately not demonstrable in detail at present.

That the introduction of the insurance scheme by the Municipality would result in an increase in the membership of the Trade Unions concerned, and, therewith, an increase in the percentage of the workpeople included in the insurance scheme, as was partly feared when the Insurance Regulations were under discussion in the Municipal Council, has, according to our experience, not been established up to now. It is true, that the above-mentioned Table shows, on the whole, an increase of about 200 in the membership of the Trade Unions

concerned, from January 1st, 1907, to January 1st, 1908. But all except one of the Trade Union representatives stated in the discussion of experiences, that of the new members joining their Unions none were induced to do so by reason of the existence of the insurance scheme. Only in the case of the female tobacco workers was it established, that the growth of their Trade Union was traceable to two cases of unemployed benefit, which occurred, but even here only on the special ground, that in the factory concerned there was a danger of many dismissals being made, and therefore the workpeople wished

to insure themselves in time. On the other hand, the officials of certain large Trade Unions declared, that it could indeed be expected, that on account of the existence of the Municipal Insurance supplement, persons who were already members of the Unions would not be so ready to leave the Unions as heretofore. In so far as this, time would show an increase in the membership of the Unions. All were at one in the opinion, that the existence of this Municipal Scheme was in no way an inducement to an immediate considerable increase in the membership of the Unions.

TABLE VIII.—Membership of the Trade Unions notifying themselves for affiliation under the Municipal Insurance Scheme.

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
No.	Trade Union.	Membership on		Increase.	Decrease	Remarks.
		1/1/1907.	1/1/1908.			
1	Stonemasons - - - - -	26	20	—	6	
2	Bookbinders - - - - -	47	54	7	—	
3	Printers - - - - -	668	676	8	—	
4	Printers' Assistants - - - - -	144	131	—	13	
5	Woodworkers - - - - -	605	672	67	—	
6	Christian Woodworkers - - - - -	55	68	13	—	
7	Lithographers (Senefelder Union) - - - - -	70	56	—	14	
8	Metal Workers - - - - -	1,080	1,115	97	—	
9	Smiths - - - - -	79	57	—	22	
10	Tobacco Workers - - - - -	22	44	22	—	
11	Upholsterers - - - - -	38	34	—	4	
12	Carpenters - - - - -	302	308	6	—	
13	Coopers - - - - -	35	18	—	17	
14	Gardeners - - - - -	21	10	—	11	
15	Glaziers - - - - -	about 10	about 10	—	—	
16	German National Shop Assistants - - - - -	about 260	about 340	about 80	—	
17	Christian Metal Workers - - - - -	54	60	6	—	
18	Millers - - - - -	137	107	—	30	
19	Christian Boot and Shoe and Leather Workers - - - - -	15	15	—	—	
20	Boot and Shoe Makers - - - - -	75	82	7	—	
	TOTAL - - - - -	3,671	3,867	313	117	

Net increase 196

The first twelve Unions drew benefit from the Municipality. The membership of the first twelve Unions increased by 161.

Besides this more negative effect of the Municipal insurance scheme, however, there are a number of positive effects to record, which showed themselves apart from the real object of the insurance scheme.

Firstly we must consider the influence that the insurance has had on the Municipal Labour Exchange. By means of the organic relation with the Trade Unions, into which this Municipal department was brought by the insurance scheme, a new connecting link, operating daily, between the most important Unions and the Labour Exchange was created. This was an advantage for the Labour Exchange in many ways. For one thing, a number of Trade Unionists got accustomed, to a great extent, to making use of the Labour Exchange. As the Trade Union unemployed benefit (as is known), is open to members only after a long membership (in most cases at least a year), it was, in all cases, good elements that now sought the Labour Exchange in their unemployment. Through the applications of such good workpeople the Labour Exchange was placed in a position to satisfy many employers, so that, without a doubt, the circle of employers, as also of workpeople, applying to the Labour Exchange has grown in consequence of the insurance scheme.

Another secondary effect of the Municipal insurance scheme was the educative influence on the individual

unemployed persons. That the regular verification which brought these members into contact with the Labour Exchange, had such an effect in many cases, will be shown by the following example:—

On a Monday two Trade Unionists reported themselves at the Labour Exchange in a state of drunkenness, and demanded the stamping of their control-cards. This was refused them, and they were told that reporting in such a state was not reporting in accordance with the provisions in the sense of Section 9 of the Insurance Regulations. As this did not satisfy them, the president of their Trade Union was asked to come to the Municipal Office, and was told what had occurred. Thereupon, not only was the refusal to stamp the cards fully approved by the Trade Union, but the Trade Union, for its own part, paid no benefit for that day to the members concerned, censured them in writing, and caused them to make a verbal apology to the officials of the Labour Exchange.

But the general social and political importance of this combination of the Trade Unions and the Public Authorities seems to me to surpass this educative effect on the individuals. In many places we have already emphasised the fact that the condition necessary for the success of this kind of provision for the unemployed is the confidence of Municipality and Unions in the

carrying out of the administration with perfect loyalty on both sides. The more one observes to-day with what little confidence the workman so often regards the bureaucracy, and with what little understanding, on the other hand, it is also to be regretted, the bureaucrat judges the conditions of the working-man, the more gladly must one welcome an institution which brings about the permanent co-operation and therefore the better understanding of both parties.

But however satisfied we may feel at being able to make these observations, we wish to avoid overestimating the importance of the Strassburg scheme. We do not imagine that this scheme has in its present compass solved the problem. It is rather a case of a partial solution, as Dr. Leo rightly observes in the above-mentioned article. The whole army of unskilled workpeople is excluded from it; for them, however, the question is not so pressing; distress work is considerably better and more correct assistance for them. For the skilled workpeople it is impossible for the Public Authorities, under the social and industrial conditions, which at present exist, to organise suitable work in special occupations in case of unemployment. For them only pecuniary assistance is left.

The variety of the Ghent system employed by us for this purpose comprises indeed only a fraction of the skilled workpeople, the organised ones, and that is at present only a small part. The ideal thing would naturally be to make this insurance accessible to all skilled workpeople. But the Municipalities have not the legal authority for this, *i.e.*, the possibility of compulsory inclusion. But shall they on that account desist from giving any form of help? Shall they in case of unemployment go on giving the skilled workman, the printer, joiner, upholsterer, etc., the choice of stone-breaking or poor relief? Or is it not rather their business, where individual tendencies to assistance show

themselves in such cases of need, to add their help to the self-help of the Trade Unions, and raise the naturally insufficient means of pure self-help to a rate of benefit, which is at least protective in some degree? It must appear unpractical to all having knowledge of the facts, in the face of such a problem of insurance as unemployment is, to call first of all for the intervention of the State, and on that account to adjourn every Municipal action in the meantime; because the problem is much too new and diverse, and requires, first of all, the most diverse practical experiments on a small scale. It is more effectual first of all to create slowly the foundation, on which perhaps later on, especially after a uniform organisation of the system of Labour Exchanges has been created for the whole Empire, can be erected an Imperial legal organisation with legal obligation to insure, on the model of our other German Insurance Legislation. Seen in the light of this development, the Strassburg experiment has, in any case, shown, that the basis of co-operation with the Trade Unions is the most natural and practical one. The present experiment has moreover shown also, that the carrying out of the Insurance Regulations drawn up here, at least in the present circumstances, was accomplished without any troubles other than those associated with every other human organisation.

DOMINICUS.

In connection with the above Report, I move that,
"The Municipal Council grant also for the financial year 1908 a credit of £250 for the encouragement of insurance against unemployment in accordance with the Insurance Regulations of November 27th, 1906."

The Mayor,

Dr. SCHWANDER.

ROYAL COMMISSION ON THE POOR LAWS AND RELIEF OF DISTRESS.

LIST OF APPENDIX VOLUMES TO THE REPORTS OF THE POOR LAW COMMISSION FOR ENGLAND AND WALES, SCOTLAND, AND IRELAND.

APPENDIX VOL. I.—ENGLISH OFFICIAL EVIDENCE.

Minutes of Evidence mainly of the Officers of the Local Government Board for England and Wales. 1st to 34th Days : 8th January to 22nd May, 1906 : Questions 1 to 14,880.

APPENDIX VOL. I. A.—ENGLISH OFFICIAL EVIDENCE.

Appendices to the Minutes of Evidence included in Vol. I., being mainly the evidence of the Officers of the Local Government Board for England and Wales.

APPENDIX VOL. I. B.—INDEX.

Index to Appendix Vols. I. and I. A.

APPENDIX VOL. II.—LONDON EVIDENCE.

Minutes of Evidence (with Appendices) mainly of London witnesses. 35th to 48th Days : 28th May to 23rd July, 1906 : Questions 14,881 to 24,739.

APPENDIX VOL. II. A.—INDEX.

Index to Appendix Vol. II.

APPENDIX VOL. III.—ASSOCIATIONS AND CRITICS.

Minutes of Evidence (with Appendices) mainly of critics of the Poor Law and of witnesses representing Poor Law and Charitable Associations. 49th to 71st Days : 1st October to 17th December, 1906 : Questions 24,740 to 35,450.

APPENDIX VOL. III. A.—INDEX.

Index to Appendix Vol. III.

APPENDIX VOL. IV.—URBAN CENTRES.—LIVERPOOL, MANCHESTER, WEST YORKS, AND MIDLANDS.

Minutes of Evidence (with Appendices) containing the oral and written evidence of the British Medical Association and of witnesses from the following provincial urban centres—Liverpool and Manchester districts, West Yorkshire, Midland Towns. 72nd to 89th Days : 14th January to 26th March, 1907 : Questions 35,451 to 48,347.

APPENDIX VOL. IV. A.—INDEX.

Index to Appendix Vol. IV.

APPENDIX VOL. V.—URBAN CENTRES.—SOUTH WALES AND NORTH EASTERN COUNTIES.

Minutes of Evidence (with Appendices) containing the oral and written evidence of witnesses from urban centres in the following districts :—South Wales and North Eastern Counties, 90th to 94th Days : 15th April to 30th April, 1907 : Questions 48,348 to 53,067.

APPENDIX VOL. V. A.—INDEX.

Index to Appendix Vol V.

APPENDIX VOL. VI.—SCOTLAND.

Minutes of Evidence (with Appendices) relating to Scotland. 95th to 110th Days, and 139th and 149th Days : 6th May to 21st June, 1907, and 13th January and 2nd March, 1908 : Questions 53,068 to 67,565 ; 88,667 to 89,046 ; 94,629 to 95,323.

APPENDIX VOL. VI. A.—INDEX.

Index to Appendix Vol. VI.

APPENDIX VOL. VII.—RURAL CENTRES.—FRIENDLY SOCIETIES, ETC.

Minutes of Evidence (with Appendices) containing the oral and written evidence of witnesses from various rural centres in the South Western, Western, and Eastern Counties, from the Parish of Poplar Borough and from the National Conference of Friendly Societies. 111th to 122nd Days : 9th July to 7th October, 1907 : Questions 67,566 to 77,734.

APPENDIX VOL. VII. A.—INDEX.

Index to Appendix Vol. VII.

APPENDIX VOL. VIII.—UNEMPLOYMENT.

Minutes of Evidence (with Appendices) containing the oral and written evidence of witnesses relating chiefly to the subject of "Unemployment." 123rd to 138th Days : 14th October to 10th December, 1907 : Questions 77,735 to 88,666.

APPENDIX VOL. VIII. A.—INDEX.

Index to Appendix Vol. VIII.

APPENDIX VOL. IX.—UNEMPLOYMENT.

Minutes of Evidence (with Appendices) containing the oral and written evidence of further witnesses relating to the subject of Unemployment, etc. 140th to 148th Days : 150th to 156th Days, and 158th Day : 14th January, 1908, to 11th May, 1908. Questions 89,048 to 94,628 ; 95,324 to 99,350 ; 100,020 to 100,590.

APPENDIX VOL. IX. A.—INDEX.

Index to Appendix Vol. IX.

APPENDIX VOL. X.—IRELAND.

Minutes of Evidence (with Appendices) relating to Ireland. 157th and 159th Days : 25th April and 12th May, 1908 : Questions 99,351 to 100,019 ; 100,591 to 100,928.

APPENDIX VOL. X. A.—INDEX.

Index to Appendix Vol. X.

APPENDIX VOL. XI.—MISCELLANEOUS.

Miscellaneous Papers. Communications from Boards of Guardians and Others, etc., etc.

APPENDIX VOL. XII.—COMMISSIONERS' MEMORANDA.

Reports, Memoranda, and Tables prepared by certain of the Commissioners.

- APPENDIX VOL. XIII.—DIOCESAN REPORTS.
Diocesan Reports on the Methods of administering Charitable Assistance and the extent and intensity of Poverty in England and Wales.
- APPENDIX VOL. XIV.—INVESTIGATORS' REPORTS.—MEDICAL RELIEF.
Report on the Methods and Results of the present system of administering Indoor and Outdoor Poor Law Medical Relief in certain Unions in England and Wales, by Dr. McVail.
- APPENDIX VOL. XV.—INVESTIGATORS' REPORTS.—CHARITY.
Report on the Administrative Relation of Charity and the Poor Law, and the extent and the actual and potential utility of Endowed and Voluntary Charities in England and Scotland, by Mr. A. C. Kay and Mr. H. V. Toynbee.
- APPENDIX VOL. XVI.—INVESTIGATORS' REPORTS.—INDUSTRIAL AND SANITARY CONDITIONS.
Reports on the Relation of Industrial and Sanitary Conditions to Pauperism, by Mr. Steel Maitland and Miss R. E. Squire.
- APPENDIX VOL. XVII.—INVESTIGATORS' REPORTS.—OUT-RELIEF AND WAGES.
Reports on the effect of Outdoor Relief on Wages, and the Conditions of Employment, by Mr. Thomas Jones and Miss Williams.
- APPENDIX VOL. XVIII.—INVESTIGATORS' REPORTS.—CHILDREN : ENGLAND AND WALES.
Report on the condition of the Children who are in receipt of the various forms of Poor Law Relief in certain Unions in London and in the Provinces, by Dr. Ethel Williams and Miss Longman and Miss Phillips.
- APPENDIX VOL. XIX.—INVESTIGATORS' REPORTS.—UNEMPLOYMENT : ENGLAND AND WALES.
Report on the Effects of Employment or Assistance given to the Unemployed since 1886 as a means of relieving Distress outside the Poor Law in London, and generally throughout England and Wales, by Mr. Cyril Jackson and the Rev. J. C. Pringle.
- APPENDIX VOL. XIX. A.—INVESTIGATORS' REPORTS.—UNEMPLOYMENT : SCOTLAND.
Report on the Effects of Employment or Assistance given to the Unemployed since 1886 as a means of relieving Distress outside the Poor Law in Scotland, by the Rev. J. C. Pringle.
- APPENDIX VOL. XIX. B.—INVESTIGATORS' REPORTS.—UNEMPLOYMENT : IRELAND.
Report on the Effects of Employment or Assistance given to the Unemployed since 1886 as a means of relieving Distress outside the Poor Law in Ireland, by Mr. Cyril Jackson.
- APPENDIX VOL. XX.—INVESTIGATORS' REPORTS.—BOY LABOUR.
Report on Boy Labour in London and certain other Typical Towns, by Mr. Cyril Jackson, with a Memorandum from the General Post Office on the Conditions of Employment of Telegraph Messengers.
- APPENDIX VOL. XXI.—INVESTIGATORS' REPORTS.—REFUSAL OF OUT-RELIEF.
Reports on the Effect of the Refusal of Out-relief on the Applicants for such Relief, by Miss G. Harlock.
- APPENDIX VOL. XXII.—INVESTIGATORS' REPORTS.—OVERLAPPING OF MEDICAL RELIEF IN LONDON.
Report on the Overlapping of the Work of the Voluntary General Hospitals with that of Poor Law Medical Relief in certain districts of London, by Miss N. B. Roberts.
- APPENDIX VOL. XXIII.—INVESTIGATORS' REPORTS.—CHILDREN : SCOTLAND.
Report on the Condition of the Children who are in receipt of the various forms of Poor Law Relief in certain parishes in Scotland, by Dr. C. T. Parsons and Miss Longman and Miss Phillips.
- APPENDIX VOL. XXIV.—INVESTIGATORS' REPORTS.—ABLE-BODIED AND "ORDINARY" PAUPERS IN ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND.
Report on a Comparison of the Physical Condition of "Ordinary" Paupers in certain Scottish Poorhouses with that of the Able-bodied Paupers in certain English Workhouses and Labour Yards, by Dr. C. T. Parsons.
- APPENDIX VOL. XXV.—STATISTICAL.
Statistical Memoranda and Tables relating to England and Wales, prepared by the Staff of the Commission and by Government Departments, and Others, and Actuarial Reports.
- APPENDIX VOL. XXVI.—CHARITIES.
Documents relating more especially to the Administration of Charities.
- APPENDIX VOL. XXVII.—REPLIES OF DISTRESS COMMITTEES.
Replies by Distress Committees in England and Wales to Questions circulated on the subject of the Unemployed Workmen Act, 1905.
- APPENDIX VOL. XXVIII.—VISITS.
Reports of Visits to Poor Law and Charitable Institutions and to Meetings of Local Authorities in the United Kingdom.
- APPENDIX VOL. XXIX.—REPORT BY GENERAL ASSEMBLY OF CHURCH OF SCOTLAND.
Report on the Methods of Administering Charitable Assistance and the extent and intensity of Poverty in Scotland, prepared by the Committee on Church Interests appointed by the General Assembly of the Church of Scotland.
- APPENDIX VOL. XXX.—SCOTLAND.
Documents relating specially to Scotland.
- APPENDIX VOL. XXXI.—IRELAND.
Statistical Memoranda and Tables relating to Ireland, etc.
- APPENDIX VOL. XXXII.—FOREIGN LABOUR COLONIES COMMITTEE.
Report on Visits paid by the Foreign Labour Colonies Committee of the Commission to certain Institutions in Holland, Belgium, Germany, and Switzerland.
- APPENDIX VOL. XXXIII.—FOREIGN POOR RELIEF SYSTEMS.
Foreign and Colonial Systems of Poor Relief, with a Memorandum on the Relief of Famines in India.
- APPENDIX VOL. XXXIV.—LIST OF WITNESSES.
Alphabetical Lists of Oral and Non-oral Witnesses.

ROYAL COMMISSION ON THE POOR LAWS AND RELIEF OF DISTRESS.

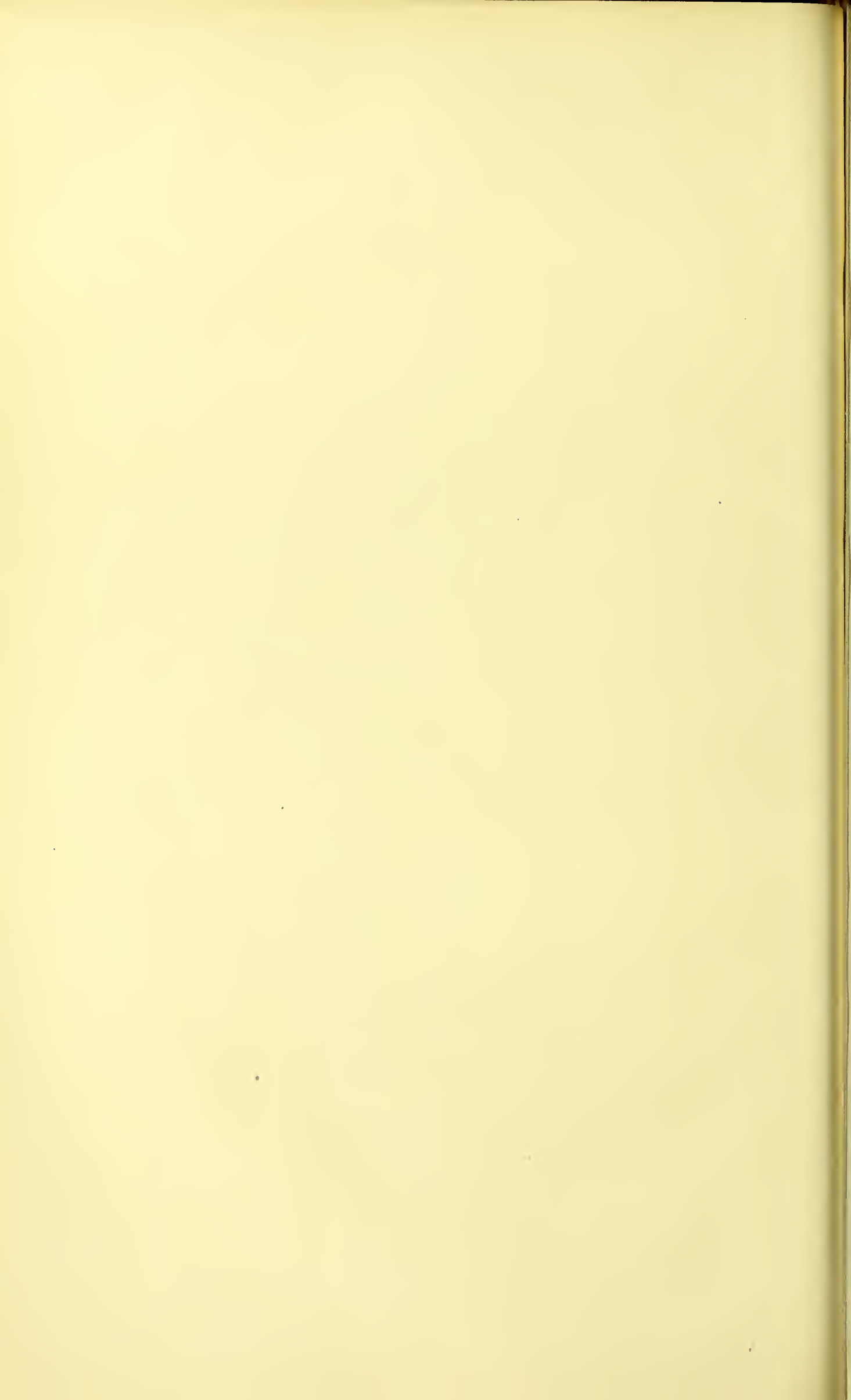
SUPPLEMENTARY LIST OF APPENDIX VOLUMES TO THE REPORTS OF THE POOR LAW COMMISSION FOR ENGLAND AND WALES, SCOTLAND AND IRELAND.

APPENDIX VOL. XXXV.—INDEX TO THE REPORT ON ENGLAND AND WALES.

APPENDIX VOL. XXXVI.—SOME INDUSTRIES EMPLOYING WOMEN PAUPERS.

A Supplement to the Report (Appendix Vol. XVII.) by Miss Constance Williams and Mr. Thomas Jones on the Effect of Outdoor Relief on Wages and the Conditions of Employment.























16



